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*Several recent studies have demonstrated that beta-haemolytic streptococci other than the group A organisms not only produce various infections in man, but are also important epidemiologically. As a result, it is no longer acceptable to identify a beta-haemolytic streptococcus simply as group A or non-group A.

Revised, 8-1-04

Presumptive Identification

*The accuracy of the bedrock test in identification of group A streptococci was unsatisfactory as 2.6% (42%) strains reported as group A by using this test were in fact group B, C or G streptococci.

Armedness, N. *Anti-Punk as Mutilated Sound*.
24 (1974) p. 79-84



Groups A, B, C and G

*Groups A, B, C, and G are the ones which have most often been associated with human streptococcal infections. Therefore the ability to identify these groups in clinical microbiology is highly desirable. *Anderson, T et al. Med Microbiol Immunol 198; 177: 1-10*

Waggoner, T. et al. *Anal. Pharmacol.*
1:59 (1972-8) p. 191

Confirmative Identification

*Of 132 dental isolates, 131 (99.25%) were correctly grouped by the Phaeobacter method using the Limcofield precipitation method as the accepted standard.

River R. J. Can. Municipal
A 9770 p 21 28

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Processing time

From clinical swab to confirmative result takes 1 day for 72 per cent of specimens and 2 days for 100 per cent of specimens.

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LIGHT AND ELECTRON MICROSCOPY ON THE SPORULATION OF THE OOCYSTS OF *EIMERIA BRUNETTI*

1 Development of the Zygote and Formation of the Sporoblasts

D J P FERGUSON^{1,2*} A BIRCH-ANDERSEN¹ W M HUTCHISON³ and J CHR SINI¹

FAO/WHO Collaborating Centre for Research and Reference in Toxoplasmosis¹ and Department of Biophysics² Statens Seruminstitut, Copenhagen, Denmark, and Department of Biology³ University of Strathclyde, Glasgow Scotland

Ferguson, D J P, Birch-Andersen, A., Hutchison, W M & Sini, J Chr. Light and electron microscopy on the sporulation of the oocysts of *Eimeria brunetti* 1 Development of the zygote and formation of the sporoblasts. Acta path microbiol scand Sect B 86 1-11 1978.

The initial stages of sporulation in oocysts of *Eimeria brunetti* were examined in samples sporulated at 27°C for 0, 12 and 24 hours. The unival zygote was found to be roughly spherical and to contain a number of polysaccharide granules which were congregated in one region of the organism. The cytoplasm also contained some strands of rough endoplasmic reticulum together with a number of mitochondria, some Golgi bodies, and some electron translucent vacuoles. The nucleus was large, with amorphous nucleoplasm and a nucleolus. The cytoplasmic mass of the zygote was limited by a single unit membrane which possessed some microvilli. After initiation of the sporulation, the metabolic activity of the organism appeared to increase as evidenced by the suppression in the cytoplasm of the strands of rough endoplasmic reticulum, number of Golgi bodies, and the appearance of polyribosomes. However at this stage the presence of large spherical dense bodies (analogous of the refractile bodies of the sporozoites) constituted the most obvious change in the cytoplasm of the organism. After nuclear division the daughter nuclei were situated well separated in the cytoplasm and the polysaccharide granules were evenly distributed throughout the cytoplasm of the zygotes. Eventually four sporoblasts were formed by invaginations of the limiting membrane. Each sporoblast was limited by a unit membrane and contained a nucleus, and the basic cytoplasmic organelles as found in the zygote. The development of the sporoblast was usually accompanied by the appearance of a second limiting membrane.

Key words: *Eimeria brunetti*, sporulation, zygote development, sporoblast formation, ultrastructure.

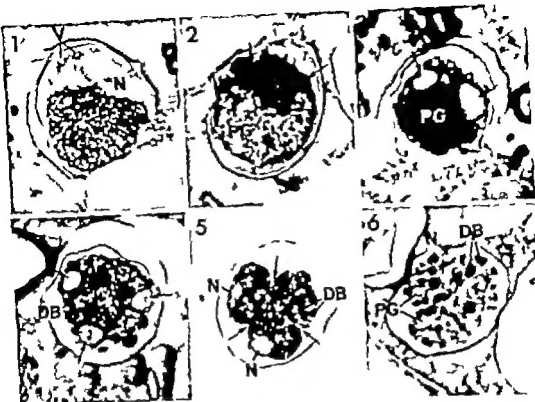
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The oocysts of parasites belonging to the family Eimeriidae undergo development (sporulation) in

the external environment. At present the ultrastructural aspects of the sporulation have not been studied because of difficulties in preparing the oocysts for examination by electron microscopy. Recently a technique has been described for preparing thin sections of oocysts for observation in the electron microscope (1). We have briefly

*Work initiated while a Wellcome Trust Travelling Research Fellow and completed as Danish Medical Research Council Fellow.



Figures 1-6 are light micrographs and Figures 7-26 are electron micrographs of sections and illustrate the development of the zygote and formation of the sporoblasts within oocysts of *E. lewini*.

A double bar (=) on a figure represents 1 μ m and a single bar (—) 100 μ m.

The following abbreviations are used throughout: ASB = amorphous body; CE = centriole; DB = dense body (precursor of the mitotic body); ER = rough endoplasmic reticulum; EV = electron translucent vacuole; G = Golgi body; LM = limiting membrane; MI = mitochondrion; MP = micropore; N = nucleus; NM = nuclear membrane; NP = nuclear pore; NU = nucleolus; OW = oocyst wall; P = possible phagocytic vacuole; PG = polysaccharide granules; R = ribosome; U31 = unit membrane; V = vacuole.

Fig 1 A section through an unsporulated oocyst (0 hours). The polysaccharide granules are congregated at one side of the zygote. The nucleus and a number of vacuoles can also be seen. 2,000 \times .

Fig 2 A section through a sporulating oocyst. A number of dense bodies (arrows) are present in addition to the polysaccharide granules, vacuoles and the nucleus (cf Fig 1). 2,000 \times .

Fig 3 In this section nuclear division has occurred and two nuclei (arrows) 2,000 \times .

Fig 4 A section through an organism in which three nuclei (arrows), well separated from each other are included in the section. Note the even distribution of dense bodies and polysaccharide granules. 2,000 \times .

Fig 5 In this section the cytoplasmic mass has started to divide and form the sporoblasts. The points of invagination are marked by arrows. 2,000 \times .

Fig 6 Three of the four newly formed sporoblasts are included in this section. Each sporoblast contains a nucleus, a number of dense bodies, and polysaccharide granules. 2,000 \times .

phagocytic vacuoles (Figs 14 and 15). In other parts of the surface of the zygote, electron translucent vacuoles and amorphous membrane bound structures appeared to be ejected from the cytoplasm (Fig.

In the cytoplasm the amount of rough endoplasmic reticulum and the number and apparent activity of the Golgi bodies were increased (Figs 13, 17 and 19). The number of free ribosomes also increased and polyribosomes were noticed. A number of

reported on a few results obtained using this technique to study the developing oocysts of *Eimeria brunetti* (12). In the present paper details of the structural changes observed during the initiation of sporulation of the zygote of *E. brunetti* will be given. In addition the changes accompanying the formation of the sporoblasts will be reported and the results will be compared with those reported for other members of the Sporozoa.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The oocysts of *E. brunetti* used in this study were concentrated from chicken faeces and stored at 4°C.

Prior to processing for electron microscopy the oocysts were allowed to sporulate at approximately 27°C for 0, 12, 24, 36 or 48 hours. Each of the samples was then processed by the technique described by Birch Andersen *et al* (1). This technique can be summarized as follows: Oocysts were pre-embedded in cross linked bovine serum albumin (BSA) and sectioned with a cryostat after rapid freezing in liquid nitrogen. The cryostat sections were allowed to thaw in Karnovsky's fixative, re-embedded in BSA, and then post fixed in osmium tetroxide before dehydration and final embedding in Vestopal W. Light microscopy was carried out on 1 µm thick sections stained with toluidine blue and photomicrographs were obtained with a Carl Zeiss photomicroscope II using Agfaapan 25 professional film. Thin sections were examined in the electron microscope after staining with magnesium uranyl acetate and lead citrate. The results in this paper are based on the examination of more than 700 electron micrographs.

RESULTS

Light Microscopy

The morphology of the oocysts containing the zygote, prior to the initiation of sporulation, was examined in material processed directly from storage at 4°C (sporulation time: 0 hours). Progressive developmental changes were observed in samples which had been allowed to sporulate for increasing periods of time. After 12 hours, a few of the oocysts had reached the sporoblast stage, but by 24 hours more than 50 per cent had developed to this stage. Development was apparently not synchronized and even after 48 hours of sporulation it was possible to observe oocysts which contained well preserved but still undivided zygotes.

In sections of the 0 hour material the zygote appeared spherical. Polysaccharide granules were observed congregated together in one half of the cytoplasm of the organism. The nucleus was situated in the area of cytoplasm free of polysaccharide granules and a number of vacuoles were present at the periphery of the zygote (Fig. 1).

After 12 hours of sporulation the most marked difference noted in the toluidine blue stained material was the appearance of a number of dense spherical bodies in the cytoplasm of the zygote (Fig. 2). In organisms in which nuclear divisions had occurred the nuclei were generally well separate and mainly found close to the periphery of the organism (Fig. 3). At this stage of development the spatial relationship between the intracellular inclusions had changed so that now the dense bodies and the polysaccharide granules were evenly distributed throughout the cytoplasm (Fig. 4).

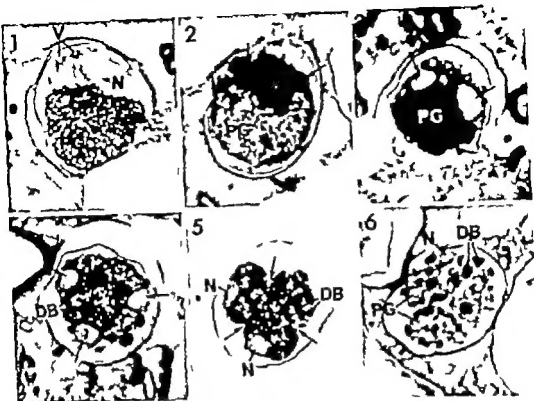
In sections prepared from material obtained after 24 hours of sporulation it was possible to find number of organisms in which the zygote had divided and formed four sporoblasts (Fig. 6). It would appear that the four sporoblasts were formed simultaneously (Fig. 5).

The sporoblasts were spherical initially but became more ellipsoidal in shape and contained nucleus, some polysaccharide granules, some dense bodies and some vacuoles (Fig. 6).

Electron Microscopy

In thin sections the zygote of unsporulated oocysts (0 hour material) was found to be limited by a single unit membrane (Fig. 8). The outline of the organism was irregular with a number of invaginations of the limiting membrane. Typical inactive micropores (13) were present on this membrane. The cytoplasm of the zygote contained a number of polysaccharide granules which, as previously observed by light microscopy, were densely packed in one portion of the cytoplasmic mass (Fig. 7). A number of electron translucent vacuoles were present in association with the polysaccharide granules. The translucent vacuoles were also observed close to the periphery of the organism together with a number of mitochondria. Some rough endoplasmic reticulum and a few Golgi bodies were observed in the portion of cytoplasm which was free from polysaccharide granules (Fig. 7). The nucleus was present in the same region where it appeared as a large diffuse structure, with an indistinct limiting membrane and lacking dense patches of chromatin (Figs 7 and 9). In a few cases a nucleolus was observed.

The ultrastructural changes occurring within the zygote prior to its division into sporoblasts were examined in material which had sporulated for 1 and 24 hours. The shape of the cytoplasmic mass of the zygote was found to remain unchanged (Fig. 13), although certain organisms did show an increase in the number and extent of the invaginations of their limiting membranes (Fig. 14). It appeared that these invaginations could form



Figures 1-6 are light micrographs and Figures 7-26 are electron micrographs of sections and illustrate the development of the zygote and formation of the sporoblasts within oocysts of *E. brevis*!

A double bar (=) on a figure represents 1 μ m and a single bar (—) 100 μ m

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Fig 3 In this section nuclear division has occurred and two nuclei are visible (arrows). 2000 \times

Fig 4 A section through an organism in which three nuclei (arrows), well separated from each other, are included in the section. Note the even distribution of dense bodies and polysaccharide granules. 2000 \times

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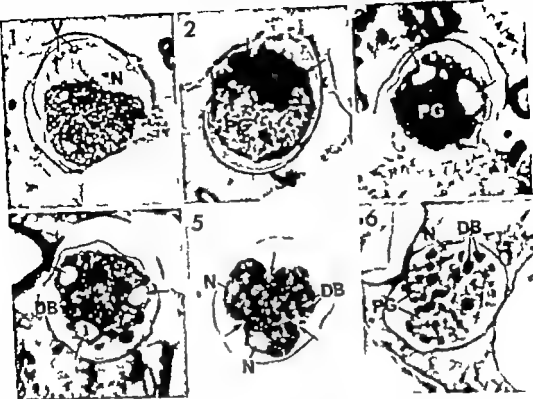
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The ultrastructural changes occurring within the zygote prior to its division into sporoblasts were examined in material which had sporulated for 12 and 24 hours. The shape of the cytoplasmic mass of the zygote was found to remain unchanged (Fig. 13), although certain organisms did show an increase in the number and extent of the invaginations of their limiting membranes (Fig. 14). It appeared that these invaginations could form



Figures 1-6 are light micrographs and Figures 7-26 are electron micrographs of sections and illustrate the development of the zygote and formation of the sporoblasts within oocysts of *E. bruxelli*.

A double bar (=) on a figure represents 1 μ m and a single bar (-) 100 μ m.

The following abbreviations are used throughout. AM = amorphous body, CE = centrosome, DB = dense body (precursor of the refractile body), ER = rough endoplasmic reticulum, EV = electron translucent vacuole, G = Golgi body, LM = limiting membrane, MI = mitochondrion, MP = micropore, N = nucleus, NM = nuclear membrane, NP = nuclear pole, NU = nucleolus, OW = oocyst wall, P = possible phagocytic vacuole, PG = polysaccharide granule, R = ribosome, UM = unit membrane, V = vacuole.

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phagocytic vacuoles (Figs 14 and 15). In other parts of the surface of the zygote, electron translucent vacuoles and amorphous membrane bound structures appeared to be ejected from the cytoplasm (Fig 14 and 16).

In the cytoplasm the amount of rough endoplasmic reticulum and the number and apparent activity of the Golgi bodies were increased (Figs 13, 17 and 19). The number of free ribosomes also increased and polyribosomes were noticed. A number of

amorphous spherical bodies (dense bodies) were now present in the cytoplasm (Fig 13). These bodies apparently consisted of randomly oriented, densely packed membranes (Fig 18) and they could develop into large structures up to 3 μ m in diameter (Fig 13). A Golgi body was often present in the vicinity of the developing dense bodies. At this stage, the large, diffuse nucleus appeared to have divided into two smaller nuclei with more distinct nuclear membranes (Fig. 13). Centriole-like structures and intra-nuclear poles were occasionally observed in association with the nuclei at this stage (Figs 10 11 and 12). After nuclear division, the nuclei apparently separated and they were now

present at opposite sides of the cytoplasmic mass (Fig 17). Also at this time, the cytoplasmic organelles appeared to have been redistributed with the polysaccharide granules and dense bodies now present throughout the cytoplasm of the organism (Fig 17).

After this stage in the development, the cytoplasmic mass divided and gave rise to the four sporoblasts. This appeared to be accomplished by invaginations of the limiting membrane which isolated four individual areas of cytoplasm (Figs 20 and 21). In the majority of cases the four sporoblasts seemed to be formed simultaneously (Fig 20).

Fig 7 A section through an unsporulated oocyst (0 hours). A number of polysaccharide granules, electron translucent vacuoles, Golgi bodies, a few strands of rough endoplasmic reticulum, and a nucleus are present within the cytoplasmic mass. A nucleolus can be present although not shown in this section. 7500 \times

Fig 8 An enlargement of part of the periphery of a zygote showing it to be limited by a single unit membrane. 90 000 \times

Fig 9 An enlargement of part of the periphery of the nucleus seen in Fig. 7. Note the indistinct nuclear membranes. 90 000 \times

Fig 10 A detail from a zygote in which a centriole-like structure with nine microtubules (arrows) arranged in a circle round a central microtubule is seen. 90 000 \times

Fig 11 An enlargement of part of the nucleus shown in Fig. 12. Two longitudinally sectioned centriole-like structures and microtubules (arrows) radiating from the nuclear pole can be seen. 90 000 \times

Fig 12 A section through an organism with a dividing nucleus. Part of the intranuclear spindle (arrow) is illustrated. 30 000 \times

Fig 13 A section through an oocyst after 12 hours sporulation. In addition to the organelles present at the earlier stage the cytoplasm now contains a number of dense bodies. 7500 \times

Fig 14 Part of the periphery of a zygote. Bodies with an amorphous content seem to bud off and phagocytic vacuoles appear to be formed at the surface of this organism. 15 000 \times

Fig 15 A detail from the periphery of a zygote. An invagination of the limiting membrane is shown which may represent a stage in the formation of a phagocytic vacuole. 90 000 \times

Fig 16 In this micrograph an electron translucent vacuole is seen to protrude from the surface of the zygote. 45 000 \times

Fig 17 A section through an organism in which two nuclei are present. The nuclei are situated in opposite sides of the cytoplasmic mass. 7500 \times

Fig 18 A section through the periphery of a dense body showing it to consist of densely packed unit membranes. 90 000 \times

Fig 19 A detailed view of an active Golgi body present in an organism similar to that in Fig. 13. 45 000 \times

Fig 20 A section of an organism in which the limiting membrane is seen to show invaginations at certain points (arrows) thus forming the individual sporoblasts. 10 000 \times

Fig 21 An enlargement of part of Fig. 20. A deep invagination of the limiting membrane is illustrated. 30 000 \times

Fig 22 Part of a section in which three of the four newly formed sporoblasts are included. Each sporoblast contains a nucleus, a number of dense bodies, polysaccharide granules, electron translucent vacuoles, Golgi bodies, and a few strands of rough endoplasmic reticulum. 15 000 \times

Fig 23 A section through sporoblasts at a slightly later developmental stage than those in Fig. 22. In these sporoblasts the cytoplasm is more condensed although the organelle complement is unchanged. 15 000 \times

Fig 24 This micrograph shows a part of a sporoblast in which the nucleus with associated Golgi bodies and strands of rough endoplasmic reticulum can be seen. Note the polysaccharide granules lined up around the dense body. 30 000 \times

Fig 25 Part of the periphery of a sporoblast in which a number of unit membranes with associated strands of rough endoplasmic reticulum are seen. 90 000 \times

Fig 26 Part of a section through the periphery of a sporoblast at a slightly later stage of development than that in Fig. 25. This organism is limited by two membranes and a micropore is seen associated with the inner limiting membrane. 90 000 \times



amorphous spherical bodies (dense bodies) were now present in the cytoplasm (Fig. 13). These bodies apparently consisted of randomly oriented, densely packed membranes (Fig. 18) and they could develop into large structures up to 3 µm in diameter (Fig. 13). A Golgi body was often present in the vicinity of the developing dense bodies. At this stage, the large, diffuse nucleus appeared to have divided into two smaller nuclei with more distinct nuclear membranes (Fig. 13). Centriole-like structures and intra nuclear poles were occasionally observed in association with the nuclei at this stage (Figs 10, 11 and 12). After nuclear division, the nuclei apparently separated and they were now

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Fig. 21 An enlargement of part of Fig. 20. A deep invagination of the limiting membrane is illustrated. 30 000 ×

Fig. 22 Part of a section in which three of the four newly formed sporoblasts are included. Each sporoblast contains a nucleus, a number of dense bodies, polysaccharide granules, electron translucent vacuoles, Golgi bodies, and a few strands of rough endoplasmic reticulum. 15 000 ×

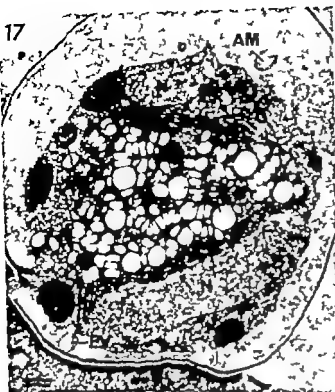
Fig. 23 A section through sporoblasts at a slightly later developmental stage than those in Fig. 22. In these sporoblasts the cytoplasm is more condensed although the organelle complement is unchanged. 15 000 ×

Fig. 24 This micrograph shows part of a sporoblast in which the nucleus with associated Golgi bodies and strands of rough endoplasmic reticulum can be seen. Note the polysaccharide granules lined up around the dense body. 30 000 ×

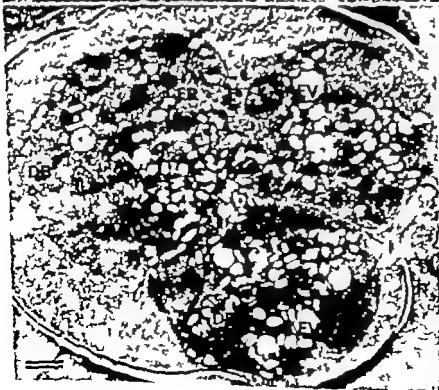
Fig. 25 Part of the periphery of a sporoblast in which a number of unit membranes with associated strands of rough endoplasmic reticulum are seen. 90 000 ×

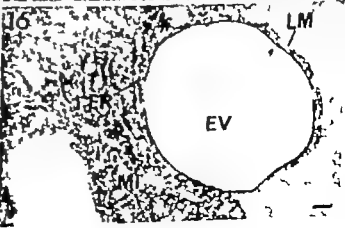
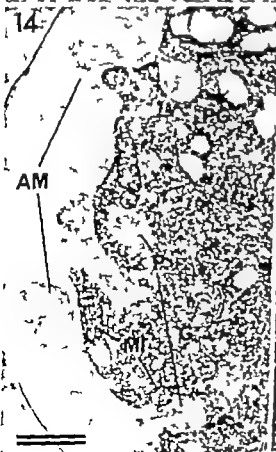
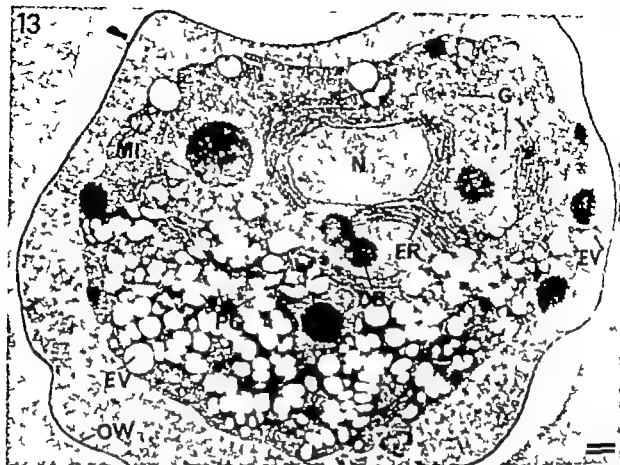
Fig. 26 Part of a section through the periphery of a sporoblast at a slightly later stage of development than that in Fig. 25. This organism is limited by two membranes and a micropore is seen associated with the inner limiting membrane. 90 000 ×

17



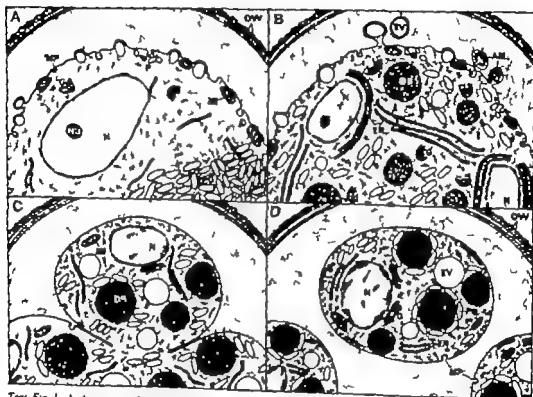
21





The sporoblasts appeared as spherical structures limited by a unit membrane. They contained a nucleus, a number of randomly distributed polysaccharide granules, Golgi bodies, mitochondria, dense bodies and strands of rough endoplasmic reticulum (Figs 22 and 24). In certain cases, a number of polysaccharide granules were lined up around the periphery of the dense bodies (Fig. 24). As the sporoblast developed, a number of strands of the rough endoplasmic reticulum were observed below the limiting membrane (Fig. 25), and the

organism had become enveloped by a second unit membrane (Fig. 26). The inner limiting membrane could be identified as the plasmalemma because of associated micropores (Fig. 26). The cytoplasm of the sporoblast had become more condensed although the organelle complement was similar to that of the earlier stage (cf. Figs 22 and 23). A diagrammatical representation of the changes observed during the initial development of the oocysts is given in Text Fig. 1.



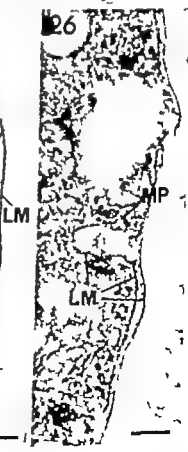
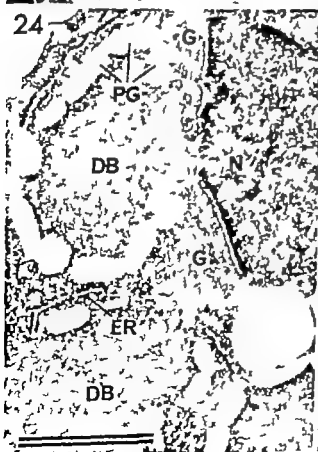
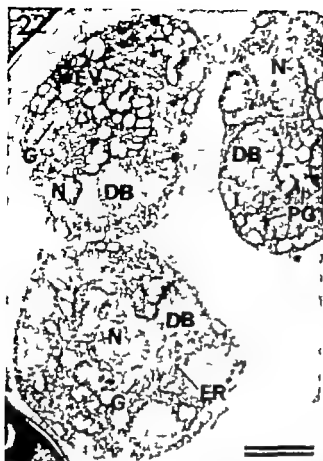
Text Fig. 1. A diagrammatical representation of the changes observed during the development of the zygote and formation of the sporoblasts. A an unsporulated oocyst (0 hours), B a sporulating oocyst (12 hours), C the formation of the sporoblasts, D early sporoblasts.

DISCUSSION

The oocysts were maintained at 4 °C during concentration and storage, this prevents sporulation although they remain viable for some time. This non-sporulation but retention of viability of oocysts has also been reported for *E. magna* (20).

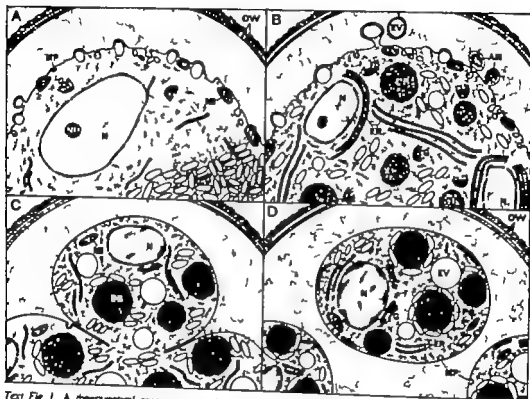
The only difference we could note between the forming oocysts of *E. brunetti* in the intestinal tissue (11) and that observed in the sample processed directly from 4° C was a contraction of the zygote

away from the oocysts wall and a congregation of the polysaccharide granules in one portion of the organism. The structure of the oocysts containing the zygote is similar to that described for *E. necatrix* (7) except that the oocysts of *E. necatrix* showed no congregation of their polysaccharide granules. The presence of a single unit membrane limiting the zygote is similar to that reported for *E. necatrix* (7) and *E. tenella* (5) but differs from that reported for *E. steinhilber* by Dubremetz et al. (6). Dubremetz et al. however used the freeze-etching technique for



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their study and it is conceivable that the extra membranes they observed could be membranes of endoplasmic reticulum in close association with the limiting membrane.

In the zygote we noted an aggregation of the polysaccharide granules within a certain region of the organism. It is possible that this aggregation could be a preparative artifact (e.g. due to centrifugation) but this seems unlikely since the granules become redispersed as sporulation proceeds further.

The initiation of sporulation appears to be accompanied by an increase in the metabolic activity and protein synthesis as evidenced by the increase in the amount of rough endoplasmic reticulum, the number of Golgi bodies, and the appearance of polyribosomes. This apparent high metabolic activity of oocysts in the early sporulation phase has also been reported for certain other members of the Sporozoa (3, 25). This early development is also accompanied by the appearance of the dense bodies which represent the anlagen of the refractile bodies of the sporozoites (14). Certain of the structures marked "mitochondrion" in the freeze etching study of *E. nieschulzi* (6) may represent these bodies which could be difficult to identify in replicas of the freeze etched material. The refractile bodies are reported to contain protein or lipoprotein moieties (16, 24). We have observed accumulations of unit membranes associated with the anlagen of the refractile bodies and this is certainly consistent with the lipoprotein nature of these organelles. The refractile bodies of *Elmeria* spp. are believed to have a function similar to the crystalloid bodies observed in a number of other members of the Sporozoa (19). These crystalloid bodies have been shown to contain both lipids and proteins (4, 23) and they thus resemble refractile bodies in chemical composition.

Some vacuoles were observed close to the limiting membrane of the zygote. Although we cannot prove that they are true phagocytic vacuoles, they could represent an uptake of material from the surrounding medium. We also noticed some electron translucent vacuoles which were apparently budding off from the surface of the zygote. These vacuoles are similar in appearance to those observed in developing macrogametes (10) and as proposed in that study their function may be one of waste disposal. Vacuoles have also been observed budding off in the oocysts of *Leucocytozoon dubreuilii* and in this case a waste disposal function was also proposed (26). It is possible that the amorphous structures observed budding off from the periphery have a similar function to that of the electron translucent vacuoles.

The presence of micropores on the zygotes and sporoblasts has been discussed previously (13).

In the oocysts of *E. brunetti* the large diploid nucleus of the zygote possesses an indistinct nuclear membrane. This observation has also been reported for the nucleus within the oocysts of *Plasmodium berghei yoelli* (15). In our study the reduction division could not be definitely recognized, but the haploid nuclei of the later stages were found to be smaller and with very distinct nuclear membranes. Centrioles and intra nuclear spindle poles with radiating microtubules were involved in nuclear division in the zygote of *E. brunetti* as they were for the endogenous forms previously reported (8, 9). In the case of the oocysts of other members of the Sporozoa a similar involvement of these organelles has also been reported (15, 21, 25). In the oocysts of *E. brunetti* the nuclear membrane appears to remain intact during nuclear division. This differs from the light microscope observations reported for *E. tenella* which indicated that the nuclear membrane disappeared and that chromosomes could be seen (2). In the sporulating oocysts of *E. brunetti* it would appear that the nucleus divides twice and gives rise to four nuclei. These nuclei are situated at the periphery of the zygote and are well separated from each other. This situation is similar to that reported for the sporulating oocysts of *E. debilecki* (24).

In *E. brunetti*, the formation of the four sporoblasts occurs simultaneously by division of the cytoplasmic mass. This process is similar to that reported for *E. tenella* (2) and *E. debilecki* (24). The sporoblasts of *E. brunetti* were formed by invagination of the limiting membrane of the organism. This observation is similar to that reported for *Hepatozoon domerguei* (25) but it differs from that reported for other members of the Sporozoa in which sporoblast formation was found to occur by a coalescence of aligned vesicles within the cytoplasmic mass (17, 18, 21, 22). From our study it appears that the formation of the uninucleate sporoblasts is similar to that reported for *E. debilecki* (24) and that the final nuclear division occurs within the developing sporoblast.

We are indebted to the Central Veterinary Laboratory, Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food, New Haw Weybridge, Surrey, England, for supplying a pure sample of oocysts of *E. brunetti* and to K. L. Fennelid V.M.D. Statens Serum Institut, for provision and maintenance of the chickens. We gratefully acknowledge Dr. J. Blom for assistance with the light microscopy, Mrs. H. Ravn and Mrs. J. Berg for technical assistance, and Miss A. G. Overgaard and Mr. F. Laurson for photographic assistance.

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The work was supported by grants from the World

LIGHT AND ELECTRON MICROSCOPY ON THE SPORULATION OF THE OOCYSTS OF *EIMERIA BRUNETTI*

II Development into the Sporocyst and Formation of the Sporozoite

D. J. P. FERGUSON¹*, A. BIRCH-ANDERSEN², W. M. HUTCHISON³ and J. CHR. SØLM¹

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Ferguson, D. J. P., Birch-Andersen, A., Hutchison, W. M. & Salm, J. Chr. Light and electron microscopy on the sporulation of the oocysts of *Eimeria brunetti* II Development into the sporocyst and formation of the sporozoite. Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B, 86: 13-24, 1978.

The later stages of sporulation in oocysts of *Eimeria brunetti* were examined in samples which had been allowed to sporulate at 27° C for 24, 36 and 48 hours. It was observed that the sporoblasts became ellipsoidal and the nucleus underwent the final division. A nucleus with associated Golgi bodies was now observed at either end of the organism. The cytoplasm was linked by two sets of membranes and contained rough endoplasmic reticulum, dense bodies, electron translucent vacuoles and mitochondria. The first evidence of sporozoite formation was the appearance of a dense plaque at either end of the organism. This appeared in the vicinity of the nuclei, and adjacent to the limiting membrane of the sporoblast. At this stage the sporocyst wall was still deformed. Then the two sporozoites were formed from opposite ends of the organism by growth of the dense plaque and invagination of the plasma membrane which then formed the pellicles of the developing sporozoites. A conoid and subpellicular microtubules were observed at this stage and as development continued, a number of vacuoles were found between the pellicles and the conoid. These vacuoles constituted the precursors of the rhoptries and merosomes. At the same stage a large dense body had appeared within the forming sporozoite. As the sporozoites developed, this body, the anterior refractile body, is followed by the nucleus and another dense body which formed the posterior refractile body. During this period the thin sporocyst wall was formed and seeds and sub-seeds bodies were now present at one end of the sporocyst. Each mature sporocyst contained two sporozoites.

Key words: *Eimeria brunetti*, sporulation, sporozoite formation, sporocyst, ultrastructure.

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To the best of our knowledge, no detailed ultrastructural description of the sporulation of any member of the *Eimeriidae* has ever been reported. Previously we have described the initial stages (*i.e.*

development of the zygote and sporoblast formation) of the process within the oocysts of *Eimeria brunetti* (9). In this report the final stages in sporulation (*i.e.* development of the sporocyst and formation of the sporozoites) will be described and the ultrastructural changes observed during this part of the sporulation of *E. brunetti* will be compared with those reported to occur for other members of the Sporozoa.

*Work supported while a Wellcome Trust Travelling Research Fellow and completed as a Danish Medical Research Council Fellow.

sporocysts and during this time many also showed that sporozoites had formed within the sporocyst. After 48 hours of sporulation, the predominant feature was sporocysts, which contained two fully formed sporozoites, although a few organisms were still seen to be at the xypote, sporoblast, or early sporocyst stages of development.

In sections stained with toluidine blue it was seen that as the sporoblast developed it became more ellipsoidal (cf. Figs 1 and 2). A nucleus was present at either end of the organism, the cytoplasm of which contained numerous dense bodies and polysaccharide granules (Fig. 2).

As the sporoblast further developed into the sporocyst a thin sporocyst wall was formed and in this a prominent Stieda body was observed at one end of the sporocyst (Fig. 3).

Details of sporozoite formation from the sporoblast stage cannot be observed with the light microscope, although it was possible to observe sporozoites being formed at opposite ends of the organism (Fig. 3). Two elongate sporozoites were found within each mature sporocyst. Each sporozoite possessed a centrally located nucleus and in the cytoplasm, anterior and posterior to this, two prominent dense bodies (refractile bodies) were present (Fig. 4).

Electron Microscopy

The structure of the sporoblast has been described previously (9). As the sporoblast further developed it became ellipsoidal and by then a nucleus with associated Golgi bodies was present at opposite ends of the organism (Fig. 5). The cytoplasm contained a number of dense bodies, polysaccharide granules, electron translucent vacuoles, mitochondria and strands of rough endoplasmic reticulum (Fig. 5). The organism was found to be enveloped by two membranes, the inner of which possessed micropores of the inactive type (Fig. 6). The outer membrane had lost its unit membrane character (Fig. 6) and was associated with the formation of the sporocyst wall.

Sporozoite formation seemed to be initiated by the appearance of a dense plaque at either end of the organism in the vicinity of a nucleus and in association with the limiting membranes of the organism (Fig. 5). A conoid appeared to be formed in the central region of each plaque and some microtubules were present in the cytoplasm adjacent to them (Figs 7 and 8). Pieces of unit membranes could also be distinguished within the dense material of the plaque (Figs 7 and 8). A nuclear pole was observed at this stage. It was found to be directed towards the dense plaque and a centriole-

like structure was occasionally seen close to it (Fig. 8).

The initiation of the Stieda body formation was observed on the outer limiting membrane at one end of the organism (Fig. 8). The Stieda body was always observed to be formed close to the site of formation of one of the sporozoites (Fig. 8). No

Fig. 5 A longitudinal section through a sporoblast. The cytoplasm contains a nucleus with associated Golgi body at either end of the organism (details of the Golgi bodies have been confirmed at higher magnification). A number of polysaccharide granules, dense bodies, mitochondria, electron translucent vacuoles, and a few strands of rough endoplasmic reticulum are also present. Note the dense plaque present at either end of the organism (arrows). 15,000 \times

Fig. 6 A section through part of the periphery of an organism similar to that in Fig. 5. Note the two limiting membranes and the micropore associated with the inner of these. 90,000 \times

Fig. 7 Part of a section through a sporoblast showing the formation of a dense plaque. The plaque consists of two closely applied unit membranes (arrow) and has microtubules in close association. The inner limiting membrane (plasmalemma) and a very early stage of the Stieda body formation can also be seen. 90,000 \times

Fig. 8 A section through part of a sporoblast showing the initiation of sporozoite formation. A nuclear pole, with associated centriole-like structure, is directed towards a dense plaque (arrow). Note the conoid present close to the plaque. 90,000 \times

Fig. 9 A section through part of a sporoblast showing two Golgi bodies situated close to the nucleus. Note the invagination of the limiting membrane (arrow) which is associated with sporozoite formation. 30,000 \times

Fig. 10 A longitudinal section through a sporoblast showing a nucleus at either end of the organism. A conoid is present and an invagination of the limiting membrane which forms the anterior of a developing sporozoite can be seen (arrow). 7,500 \times

Fig. 11 A section through part of a sporoblast. The posterior growth of the plaque is shown (arrows) and a precursor of a rhoptry or microsome is also present. 30,000 \times

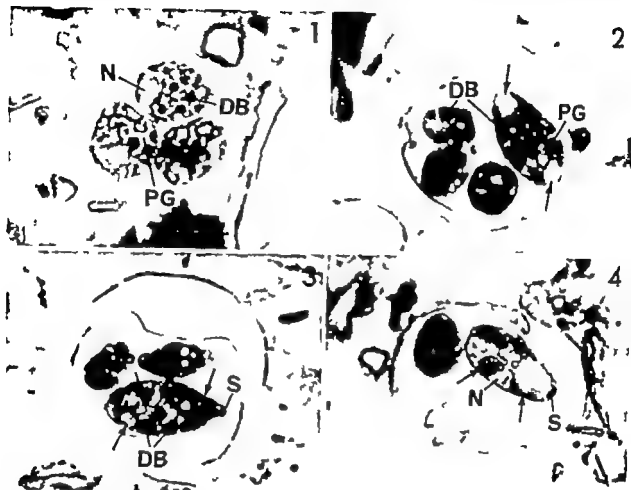
Fig. 12 This section shows the invagination of the limiting membrane of the sporoblast (arrow) and the growth of the plaque towards the nucleus. Vacuoles are present between the nucleus and the anterior of the plaque. 30,000 \times

Fig. 13 A cross section through a sporoblast showing the formation of a sporozoite. The invaginations of the limiting membrane and plaque can be seen (arrows). 30,000 \times

The materials and methods were as described previously (3-9). In this study of the later stages of sporulation, oocysts which had been allowed to sporulate for 24, 36 and 48 hours were examined. The results published are based on the examination of more than 900 electron micrographs.

Light Microscopy

After 24 hours of sporulation, a number of oocysts contained sporoblasts which were developing into sporocysts. After 36 hours of sporulation, the majority of organisms had formed their



Figures 1-4 are light micrographs and Figures 5-25 are electron micrographs of sections and illustrate the development of the sporoblast into the sporocyst and the formation of the sporozoites within oocysts of *E. bruxelli*.

A double bar (=) on a figure represents 1 μ m and a single bar (→) 100 nm.

The following abbreviations are used throughout. C = conoid, CE = centriole, CM = cytoplasmic mass, DB = dense body (precursor of the refractile body), ER = rough endoplasmic reticulum, EV = electron translucent vacuole, G = Golgi body, LM = limiting membrane, MI = mitochondrion, MN = microneme, MT = microtubule, N = nucleus, NP = nuclear pole, OW = oocyst wall, PG = polysaccharide granule, PL = pellicle, PP = posterior pore, RB = refractile body, RH = rhoptry, RM = residual cytoplasmic mass, S = Stieda body, SP = sporozoite, SS = sub-Stieda body, SW = sporocyst wall, V = vacuole (precursor of a rhoptry or microneme).

Fig 1 A section in which three of the four spherical sporoblasts are included. Each sporoblast contains a nucleus, and a number of polysaccharide granules and dense bodies. 2000 \times

Fig 2 A section which contains all four sporoblasts. At this stage the sporoblasts are ellipsoidal and in the one cut longitudinally a nucleus is present at either end of the organism (arrows). 2000 \times

Fig 3 A section which contains a longitudinally cut sporoblast. The formation of a sporozoite at either end of the organism can be seen (arrows). Note the Stieda body present at one end of the sporoblast. 2000 \times

Fig 4 A section in which is included a longitudinal cut through a fully sporulated sporocyst. The two sporozoites and the Stieda body are shown. Note that the sporozoites have a refractile body both anterior and posterior to the nucleus (arrows). 2000 \times

sporocysts and during this time many also showed that sporozoa had formed within the sporocysts. After 48 hours of sporulation, the predominant feature was sporocysts, which contained two fully formed sporozoites, although a few organisms were still seen to be at the zygote, sporoblast, or early sporocyst stages of development.

In sections stained with toluidine blue it was seen that as the sporoblast developed it became more ellipsoidal (cf Figs 1 and 2). A nucleus was present at either end of the organism, the cytoplasm of which contained numerous dense bodies and polysaccharide granules (Fig. 2).

As the sporoblast further developed into the sporocyst a thin sporocyst wall was formed and in this a prominent Sclerita body was observed at one end of the sporocyst (Fig. 3).

Details of sporozoite formation from the sporoblast stage cannot be observed with the light microscope, although it was possible to observe sporozoites being formed at opposite ends of the organism (Fig. 3). Two elongate sporozoites were found within each mature sporocyst. Each sporozoite possessed a centrally located nucleus and in the cytoplasm, anterior and posterior to this, two prominent dense bodies (refractile bodies) were present (Fig. 4).

Electron Microscopy

The structure of the sporoblast has been described previously (9). As the sporoblast further developed it became ellipsoidal and by then a nucleus with associated Golgi bodies was present at opposite ends of the organism (Fig. 5). The cytoplasm contained a number of dense bodies, polysaccharide granules, electron translucent vacuoles, mitochondria and strands of rough endoplasmic reticulum (Fig. 5). The organism was found to be enveloped by two membranes, the inner of which possessed micropores of the inactive type (Fig. 6) (8). The outer membrane had lost its unit membrane character (Fig. 6) and was associated with the formation of the sporocyst wall.

Sporozoite formation seemed to be initiated by the appearance of a dense plaque at either end of the organism in the vicinity of a nucleus and an association with the limiting membranes of the organism (Fig. 5). A conoid appeared to be formed in the central region of each plaque and some microtubules were present in the cytoplasm adjacent to them (Figs 7 and 8). Pieces of unit membranes could also be distinguished within the dense material of the plaque (Figs 7 and 8). A nuclear pole was observed at this stage. It was found to be directed towards the dense plaque and a centriole-

like structure was occasionally seen close to it (Fig. 8).

The initiation of the Sclerita body formation was observed on the outer limiting membrane at one end of the organism (Fig. 3). The Sclerita body was always observed to be formed close to the site of formation of one of the sporozoites (Fig. 3). No

Fig. 5 A longitudinal section through a sporoblast. The cytoplasm contains a nucleus with associated Golgi body at either end of the organism (details of the Golgi bodies have been confirmed at higher magnification). A number of polysaccharide granules, dense bodies, mitochondria, electron translucent vacuoles, and a few strands of rough endoplasmic reticulum are also present. Note the dense plaque present at either end of the organism (arrows). 15,000 \times

Fig. 6 A section through part of the periphery of an organism similar to that in Fig. 5. Note the two limiting membranes and the micropore associated with the inner of these. 90,000 \times

Fig. 7 Part of a section through a sporoblast showing the formation of a dense plaque. The plaque consists of two closely apposed unit membranes (arrow) and has microtubules in close association. The inner limiting membrane (plasmalemma) and a very early stage of the Sclerita body formation can also be seen. 90,000 \times

Fig. 8 A section through part of a sporoblast showing the initiation of sporozoite formation. A nuclear pole, with associated centriole-like structure, is directed towards a dense plaque (arrow). Note the conoid present close to the plaque. 90,000 \times

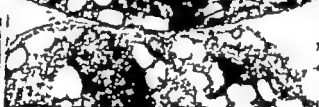
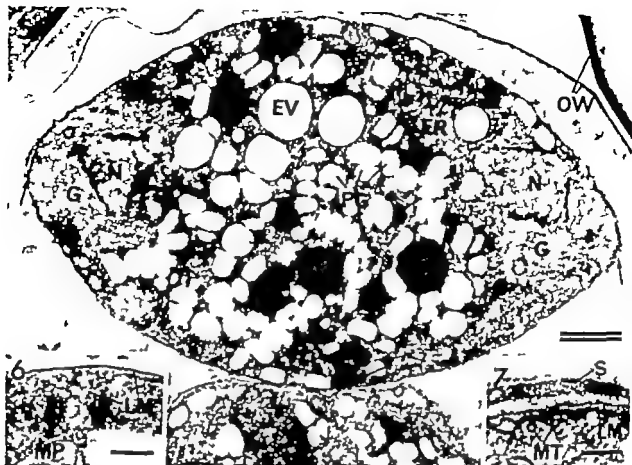
Fig. 9 A section through part of a sporoblast showing two Golgi bodies situated close to the nucleus. Note the invagination of the limiting membrane (arrow) which is associated with sporozoite formation. 30,000 \times

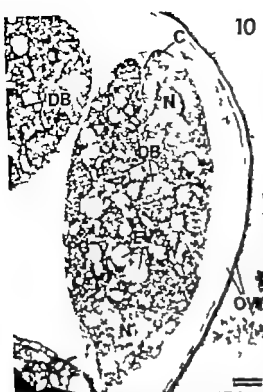
Fig. 10 A longitudinal section through a sporoblast showing a nucleus at either end of the organism. A conoid is present and an invagination of the limiting membrane which forms the anterior of a developing sporozoite can be seen (arrow). 7,500 \times

Fig. 11 A section through part of a sporoblast. The posterior growth of the plaque is shown (arrows) and a precursor of a rhoptry or macroneme is also present. 30,000 \times

Fig. 12 This section shows the invagination of the limiting membrane of the sporoblast (arrow) and the growth of the plaque towards the nucleus. Vacuoles are present between the nucleus and the anterior of the plaque. 30,000 \times

Fig. 13 A cross section through a sporoblast showing the formation of a sporozoite. The invaginations of the limiting membrane and plaque can be seen (arrows). 30,000 \times





10



11



12



13

specific structures appeared to be involved in either Stieda body or sporocyst wall formation. The material for these structures appeared to be coalesced onto the outer limiting membrane of the organism. At the initiation of sporozoite formation the sporocyst wall was still unformed.

As sporozoite formation continued, the plaque developed posteriorly into the cytoplasmic mass (Figs. 9, 11 and 12). The two sporozoites were formed from opposite ends of the parent body (Figs. 5, 10 and 16). At this stage a number of Golgi bodies with associated vesicles were observed around each nucleus (Fig. 9). The pellicle of the developing sporozoite consisted of the invaginated limiting membrane of the cytoplasmic mass and adjacent to this membrane was the plaque which appeared as two closely applied unit membranes (Figs. 12, 13 and 15). In cross section through the early stages, the plaques appeared as a number of distinct patches (Fig. 17). Microtubules were observed in the cytoplasm in close association with the pellicle (Fig. 17). A number of unit membrane enclosed vacuoles, varying in size and with granular

contents, were observed between the nucleus at the anterior part of the developing sporozoite (Fig. 14). They probably represent the precursors of rhoptries and micronemes. In the later stages of sporozoite development, ducts were observed in continuity with some of the larger vacuoles. It was also possible at this stage to observe intact micropores on the limiting membrane of the cytoplasmic mass of the organism (Fig. 13).

As the sporozoites grew posteriorly a large dense body was seen to be included in the cytoplasm. The body was found anterior to the nucleus and could now be termed the anterior refractile body (Fig. 16). In the later stages of sporozoite formation a large posterior refractile body was also observed (Fig. 19). Both of these refractile bodies seemed to be formed by a coalescence of the smaller dense bodies, which at earlier stages were distributed in the cytoplasm (Fig. 5). In addition, mitochondria, rhoptries, micronemes, rough endoplasmic reticulum and a few polysaccharide granules were observed in the cytoplasm of the developing sporozoites (Figs. 19, 20 and 21). These sporozoites seemed to remain

Fig. 14 A section through part of a sporoblast. The Stieda body and the anterior part of a forming sporozoite can be seen. Note the vacuoles present between the nucleus and conoid, and the pellicle which is formed by the dense plaque and the invaginated limiting membrane of the sporoblast. 45 000 \times

Fig. 15 A detail showing the invagination of the limiting membrane of the sporoblast. The pellicle of the developing sporozoite is formed by this membrane in association with the dense plaque (arrows). Note also the presence of a single limiting membrane on the cytoplasmic mass of the sporoblast. 90 000 \times

Fig. 16 A longitudinal section through an early sporocyst. The two partially formed sporozoites can be seen. The extent of the invagination of the limiting membrane of the organism and the growth of the plaque is marked (arrows). It is illustrated how the anterior refractile body and the nucleus of each sporozoite is enclosed at this stage. 15 000 \times

Fig. 17 A cross section through part of the periphery of an early sporozoite. The organism is enclosed by a pellicle consisting of a limiting unit membrane and the plaque which at this stage, appears as a number of distinct patches (arrows). Note the microtubules associated with the patches. 90 000 \times

Fig. 18 A section through part of a late sporocyst. A sporozoite is shown to be attached to the residual cytoplasmic mass at the posterior end. Note that the inner layer of the pellicle of the sporozoite forms the posterior pore (arrows). 90 000 \times

Fig. 19 A longitudinal section through a sporozoite. The cytoplasm contains a conoid and a number of rhoptries, micronemes and polysaccharide granules. Two refractile bodies are also present, situated on either side of the nucleus. 15 000 \times

Fig. 20 A cross section through the anterior part of a sporozoite. The rhoptries and micronemes can be seen enclosed by a pellicle. The sporocyst wall is also seen. 30 000 \times

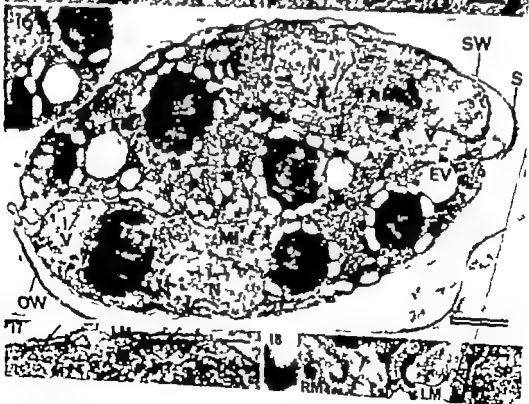
Fig. 21 A cross section through a sporozoite at the level of the nucleus. The nucleus and Golgi bodies can be seen enclosed by a pellicle. The sporocyst wall is also present. 30 000 \times

Fig. 22 A cross section through a fully formed sporocyst. The two cross cut sporozoites and the residual cytoplasmic mass can be seen. 15 000 \times

Fig. 23 A longitudinal section through the anterior part of a mature sporocyst. The Stieda body is situated in the aperture of the sporocyst wall. Note the presence of the sub-Stieda body. 30 000 \times

Fig. 24 A section through part of the periphery of a sporocyst showing the pellicle of a sporozoite and the structure of the sporocyst wall. 90 000 \times

Fig. 25 A section through part of the periphery of one of the sporozoites in the sporocyst shown in Fig. 22. Note that the sporozoite is limited by a pellicle and the residual cytoplasmic mass by a single unit membrane. 90 000 \times



specific structures appeared to be involved in either Stieda body or sporocyst wall formation. The material for these structures appeared to be coalesced onto the outer limiting membrane of the organism. At the initiation of sporozoite formation the sporocyst wall was still unformed.

As sporozoite formation continued the plaque developed posteriorly into the cytoplasmic mass (Figs 9, 11 and 12). The two sporozoites were formed from opposite ends of the parent body (Figs. 5, 10 and 16). At this stage a number of Golgi bodies with associated vesicles were observed around each nucleus (Fig. 9). The pellicle of the developing sporozoite consisted of the invaginated limiting membrane of the cytoplasmic mass and adjacent to this membrane was the plaque which appeared as two closely applied unit membranes (Figs. 12, 13 and 15). In cross section through the early stages, the plaques appeared as a number of distinct patches (Fig. 17). Microtubules were observed in the cytoplasm in close association with the pellicle (Fig. 17). A number of unit membrane enclosed vacuoles, varying in size and with granular

contents, were observed between the nucleus in the anterior part of the developing sporozoite (Fig. 14). They probably represent the precursors of the rhoptries and micronemes. In the later stages of sporozoite development, ducts were observed in continuity with some of the larger vacuoles. It was also possible at this stage to observe small micropores on the limiting membrane of the cytoplasmic mass of the organism (Fig. 13).

As the sporozoites grew posteriorly a large dense body was seen to be included in the cytoplasm. This body was found anterior to the nucleus and could now be termed the anterior refractile body (Fig. 16). In the later stages of sporozoite formation a large posterior refractile body was also observed (Fig. 11). Both of these refractile bodies seemed to be formed by a coalescence of the smaller dense bodies, which at earlier stages were distributed in the cytoplasm (Fig. 5). In addition, mitochondria, rhoptries, micronemes, rough endoplasmic reticulum and a few polysaccharide granules were observed in the cytoplasm of the developing sporozoites (Figs. 19, 20 and 21). These sporozoites seemed to remain

Fig. 14 A section through part of a sporoblast. The Stieda body and the anterior part of a forming sporozoite can be seen. Note the vacuoles present between the nucleus and conoid, and the pellicle which is formed by the dense plaque and the invaginated limiting membrane of the sporoblast. 45 000 \times

Fig. 15 A detail showing the invagination of the limiting membrane of the sporoblast. The pellicle of the developing sporozoite is formed by this membrane in association with the dense plaque (arrows). Note also the presence of a single limiting membrane on the cytoplasmic mass of the sporoblast. 90 000 \times

Fig. 16 A longitudinal section through an early sporocyst. The two partially formed sporozoites can be seen. The extent of the invagination of the limiting membrane of the organism and the growth of the plaque is marked (arrows). It is illustrated how the anterior refractile body and the nucleus of each sporozoite is enclosed at this stage. 15 000 \times

Fig. 17 A cross section through part of the periphery of an early sporozoite. The organism is enclosed by a pellicle consisting of a limiting unit membrane and the plaque which at this stage appears as a number of distinct patches (arrows). Note the microtubules associated with the patches. 90 000 \times

Fig. 18 A section through part of a late sporocyst. A sporozoite is shown to be attached to the residual cytoplasmic mass at the posterior end. Note that the inner layer of the pellicle of the sporozoite forms the posterior pore (arrows). 90 000 \times

Fig. 19 A longitudinal section through a sporozoite. The cytoplasm contains a conoid and a number of rhoptries, micronemes and polysaccharide granules. Two refractile bodies are also present, situated on either side of the nucleus. 15 000 \times

Fig. 20 A cross section through the anterior part of a sporozoite. The rhoptries and micronemes can be seen enclosed by a pellicle. The sporocyst wall is also seen. 30 000 \times

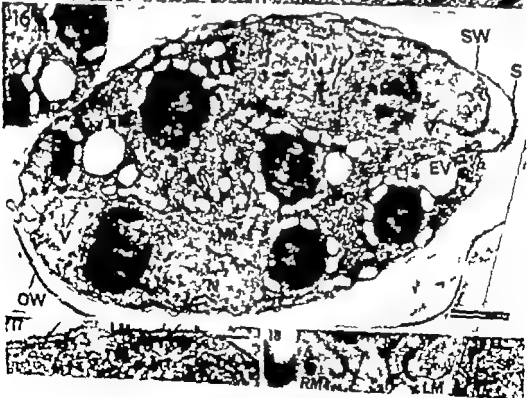
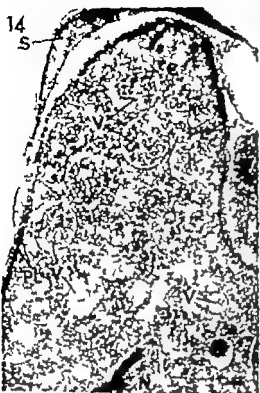
Fig. 21 A cross section through a sporozoite at the level of the nucleus. The nucleus and Golgi bodies can be seen enclosed by a pellicle. The sporocyst wall is also present. 30 000 \times

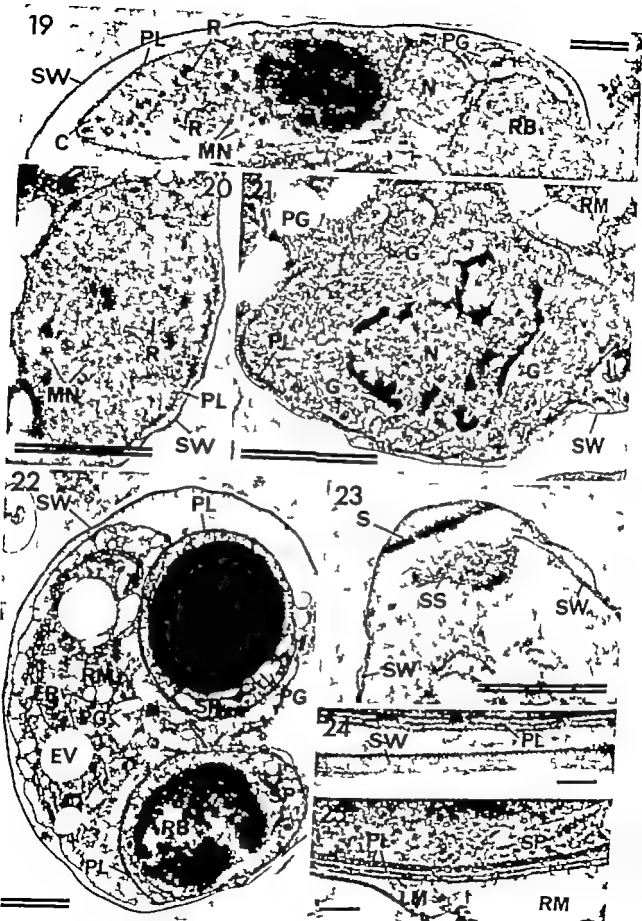
Fig. 22 A cross section through a fully formed sporocyst. The two cross cut sporozoites and the residual cytoplasmic mass can be seen. 15 000 \times

Fig. 23 A longitudinal section through the anterior part of a mature sporocyst. The Stieda body is situated in the aperture of the sporocyst wall. Note the presence of the sub-Stieda body. 30 000 \times

Fig. 24 A section through part of the periphery of a sporocyst showing the pellicle of a sporozoite and the structure of the sporocyst wall. 90 000 \times

Fig. 25 A section through part of the periphery of one of the sporozoites in the sporocyst shown in Fig. 23. Note that the sporozoite is limited by a pellicle and the residual cytoplasmic mass by a single unit membrane. 90 000 \times



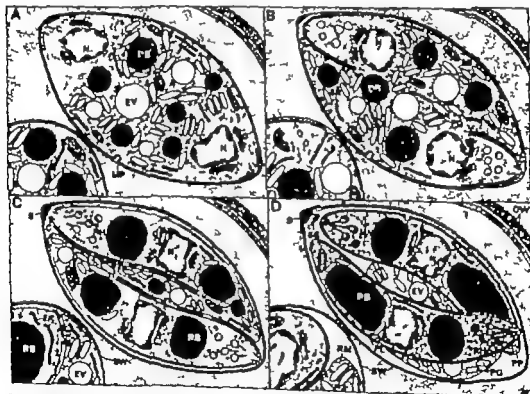


attached to the residual mass for some time and during this period a posterior polar ring appeared to be formed by the inner layer of the pellicle (Fig. 18). The pellicle consisted of a single plus two closely applied unit membranes (Fig. 25).

After separation from the residual mass the two sporozoites were situated within the sporocyst orientated in opposite directions to each other. Generally a micropore of the inactive type was observed on each of the sporozoites. The residual mass from which the sporozoites had developed was lined by a unit membrane (Fig. 25) on which an inactive micropore could be occasionally observed. The residual mass as such consisted of a number of polysaccharide granules and electron translucent vacuoles, a few mitochondria and strands of rough endoplasmic reticulum (Fig. 22). During this

development of the sporozoites the sporocyst wall had formed simultaneously (Fig. 22). A diagrammatical representation of the changes observed during this development is given in Text Fig. 1.

The mature sporocyst containing the sporozoites was limited by a wall (70 nm thick) (Fig. 24) which in certain organisms presented a laminated structure (Figs. 23 and 24). The sporocyst wall contained a round opening (720 nm diameter) at one end. The Stieda body was situated at this part of the wall where it appeared to form a plug- and cap-like structure sealing the opening (Fig. 23). The sub-Stieda body was present within the sporocyst immediately below the Stieda body (Fig. 23). It presented a granular appearance compared to the more amorphous character of the material of the latter (Fig. 23).



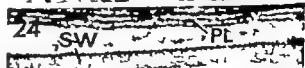
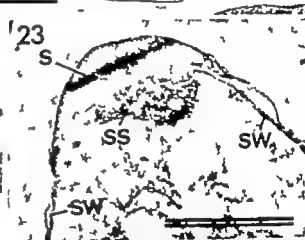
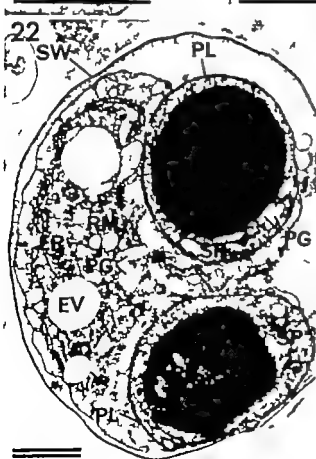
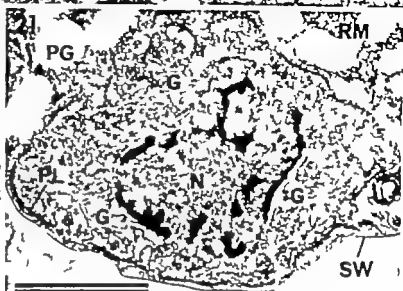
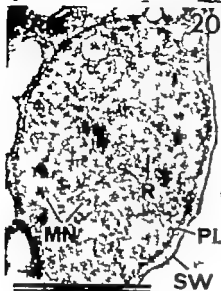
Text Fig. 1. A diagrammatical representation of the changes observed during the development of the sporoblast into the sporocyst with the simultaneous formation of the two sporozoites (A-C). The structure of the fully sporulated sporocyst is shown in D.

DISCUSSION

In *Eimeria brunetti* the late sporoblast was found to develop into an ellipsoidal-shaped structure. This is similar to that observed for the sporoblasts of *E. debilecki* (29) and *Ceratomyxa durchowi* (13). In

addition, it was observed that the final nuclear division occurs at this stage, which also is similar to that reported for *E. debilecki* (29).

Sporozoite formation in *E. brunetti* was initiated by the formation of a dense plaque close to the limiting membrane in the vicinity of a nucleus.



samples of oocysts of *E. brunetti*, and to K. L. Finnersted, VMD, Stennis Semiminstrel, for provision and maintenance of the chickens. We gratefully acknowledge Dr J. Blom for assistance with the light microscopy, Mrs H. Ren and Mrs J. Berg for technical assistance, and Mrs A. G. Overgaard and Mr F. Laurson for photographic assistance.

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This is analogous to the initiation of sporozoite formation in other members of the Sporozoa (4 5 13 14 15 17 18 24 25 26 27 28 31). In the sporoblasts of the present material the nuclear pole was found to be retained and oriented towards the developing daughters. A similar situation existed in the schizont of *E. brunetti* (6). The initiation of sporozoite formation was found to occur prior to the formation of the sporocyst wall. This condition differs from what has been reported for related families and genera, which also produce sporocysts but for which a fully formed sporocyst wall has been found to precede the formation of the sporozoite (2, 10 11 13 15 16 18). Whether or not this particular feature of sporozoite formation in *E. brunetti* is typical of the genus *Eimeria* will have to await the examination of other members of this genus.

The basic process of sporozoite formation as observed in *E. brunetti* is similar to that described for other members of the Sporozoa. It differs, however from that reported for *Plasmodium* spp. *Leucocytozoon* spp. and *Haemoproteus metchnikovi* (4 5 24 25 26 28 31). The main difference between the two types of sporozoite formation is that the developing sporozoites of *E. brunetti* are not formed from protrusions of the surface of the cytoplasmic mass but from invaginations of the limiting membranes. In the case of *E. brunetti* a limited space is available to the developing sporozoites due to the simultaneous formation of the sporocyst wall, and this could probably explain why the sporozoite formation takes place by an invagination process. An inward growth rather than a budding off process for the developing sporozoites has also been reported for the sporogony of *C. durchoni*, *Diplauxis schreveli*, *D. haitii* and *A. eberti* in which sporozoite formation also occurs within the confines of a sporocyst (13 15 17 18).

The asexual multiplication (schizogony) occurring in the endogenous forms of the Sporozoa has been reviewed by Pouchet, Hennert (14) and Aikawa & Sterling (1). The present available knowledge indicates that schizogony can occur via two different types of basic processes. One in which daughter formation occurs at the mother cell's surface and the other where daughter formation occurs within the mother cell (endodyogeny and endopolygeny). The terms exogenesis (exogenesis) and endogenesis (endogenesis) respectively have been proposed to differentiate between these processes (30). The majority of species so far examined were found to undergo exogenesis while endogenesis has only been observed in a few genera (14). The sporogonic process as observed for *E. brunetti* is similar to the exogenesis described for the endogenous forms of

the Sporozoa. Thus it would appear that the asexual multiplication undergone by *E. brunetti* is very similar whether it occurs in the endogenous forms by schizogony (6) or within the oocyst by sporogony. In our experience, at least, no fundamental differences were observed.

The ultrastructure of the sporozoite of *E. brunetti* with its anterior and posterior refractile bodies is similar to that reported for the sporozoites of other *Eimeria* spp. (19 21).

The formation of the sporocyst wall and the Stieda body did not appear to be associated with any particular cytoplasmic organelle, such as the wall-forming bodies which participate in the formation of the oocyst wall (7). This differs from that reported for *Sarcocystis tenella* (11) and *A. eberti* (10) where "osmophilic bodies" and "granular bodies" respectively were thought to be involved in sporocyst wall formation. For *E. brunetti* the sporocyst wall and the Stieda body appeared to be formed by a gradual coalescence of material onto the outer limiting membrane of the developing sporocyst. The only opening present in the sporocyst wall is occupied by the Stieda body which forms a plug and cap-like structure over the gap. The structure of the Stieda body resembles that reported for this organelle in *E. larimerensis* (20) and the presence of a sub-Stieda body is also similar to what has been described for sporocysts of *E. larimerensis* and *E. callospermophilii* (20). The sporocyst wall of *E. brunetti* is thin and composed of a single layer and this is similar to the structure of the sporocyst wall of *E. larimerensis* (20). The structure of the sporocyst walls of the *Eimeria* spp. examined to date differs from that reported for the sporocysts of certain related families and genera for which the sporocyst walls have been found to be composed of a number of plates which are joined by a specialized structure (2, 12 13 16 17 22, 23).

In our experience, the sporocyst wall seems, in its resistance to chemical agents, to be similar to the oocyst wall and thus only sporocysts, the walls of which had been broken, were properly fixed and embedded. Why these parasites should be doubly protected against chemical interference is unclear since the oocyst wall alone should provide sufficient protection in the external environment. However this circumstance may be of evolutionary significance because a protective sporocyst wall will be a necessity for species which produce sporocysts which are not protected by an oocyst wall.

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THE EFFECT OF NALIDIXIC ACID, RIFAMPICIN AND CHLORAMPHENICOL ON THE SYNTHESIS OF PHOSPHOLIPASE C IN *BACILLUS CEREUS*

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Valle, K. J. and Prydz, H. The effect of nalidixic acid, rifampicin and chloramphenicol on the synthesis of phospholipase C in *Bacillus cereus*. Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B. 86: 25-28, 1978.

The effect of nalidixic acid, rifampicin and chloramphenicol on the synthesis of phospholipase C (EC 3.1.4.3) has been studied in washed *Bacillus cereus* cells resuspended in nutrient broth. In the absence of inhibitors, the synthesis showed a biphasic pattern. No synthesis or release of enzyme was found in the presence of chloramphenicol. When rifampicin was added, phospholipase C synthesis continued for 10-15 min. Nalidixic acid, at concentrations which inhibited DNA synthesis completely, permitted the synthesis of phospholipase C at the same rate and for a similar length of time as rifampicin.

Key words: phospholipase C, exoenzyme synthesis, *Bacillus cereus*.

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The synthesis of extracellular protease or α -amylase in washed *Bacillus subtilis* cells suspended in fresh medium shows a biphasic pattern, whereas other extracellular enzymes such as RNase show other patterns (3, 4). The intracellular level of protease is very low (10), and transport and release of preformed enzyme account for only a small part of the first phase of increased enzyme activity, most of which is chloramphenicol-sensitive *de novo* synthesis of protease on preformed mRNA templates. This rifampicin-resistant production lasts for 60-80 min. A rifampicin-resistant synthesis of about 40 min duration was also found for two other extracellular enzymes from the same strain (RNase and α -amylase) (6). This implies either (or both) an increased stability of mRNA for these extracellular enzymes in this strain, or an increased size of the pool of the relevant mRNA species. The biphasic pattern of increased protease synthesis was assumed to be due to repression by the amino acids present in the medium. As the amino acids were metabolized, protease mRNA transcription was supposedly derepressed.

The study of a different exoenzyme in another strain of *Bacillus* might provide information concerning the generality of these observations. For this purpose we chose phospholipase C (EC 3.1.4.3) (PLC) from *Bacillus cereus*.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacillus cereus ATCC 10987 was stored on Brain Heart Infusion agar (Oxoid). Liquid cultures were grown on a shaker @ 150 rev/min and 37° C, using the low molecular fraction of nutrient broth (Oxoid) obtained by dialysis (13). Growth was monitored at 600 nm.

Washed cell suspensions. Liquid cultures (150 ml) were harvested after about 3 h at an absorbency of 0.85, i.e. at the late logarithmic phase, when the rate of synthesis of phospholipase C was highest (13). The cells at 18 ml samples were harvested on 0.22 μ Millipore filters, washed with 10 ml prewarmed fresh medium and transferred to Erlenmeyer flasks with 15 or 20 ml fresh medium to which the relevant isotopes and inhibitors were added. The whole procedure was carried out at 38° C and required less than 3 min.

Isotope labelling. (U-¹⁴C)-L-leucine (50 μ Ci/ml, specific activity 348 Ci/mol) (200 μ l) and 5,6-³H-uridine

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Isotope labelling. (U-¹⁴C)-L-leucine (50 μ Ci/ml, specific activity 348 Ci/mol) (200 μ l) and 5,6-³H-uridine

(1 mCi/ml specific activity 41 Ci/mmol) (12 μ l) (from the Radiochemical Centre, Amersham) were added to 15 ml aliquots of washed resuspended cells.

Assays One ml samples were withdrawn for determination of absorbancy at 600 nm and afterwards centrifuged (10 000 G/10 min/4° C). The pellets were used for determination of DNA and isotope incorporation. The PLC activity was measured in the supernatants by inactivation of a standard suspension of tissue thromboplastin (2) as described earlier (13-14). One enzyme unit inactivated one unit of tissue thromboplastin per min at 37° C.

Where the enzyme activity was high, the supernatants were diluted with veronal-buffered saline (7) containing 1 mM ZnCl₂, Chloramphenicol (Sigma) rifampicin (Lepeth) and malidix acid (Sigma) did not influence the assay system in the concentrations used.

The cell pellets were extracted with 2 ml cold 0.5 M perchloric acid (PCA) for 15 min at 2° C and centrifuged. The sediments were washed four times in cold 0.5 M PCA. The radioactivity of the washing fluids was determined. For isotope counting, the final pellets were dissolved in 1 ml 0.5 M NaOH for 48 h at 37° C in stoppered tubes. Three samples of 0.1 ml from each hydrolysate were mixed with 10 ml Instagel (Packard) and counted in a Packard Tri Carb 3375 Scintillation Counter. The quenching effect was found to be insignificant.

For DNA determination, the solutions were reacidified with cold HCl, reprecipitated with an equal volume of cold 0.5 M perchloric acid and centrifuged after 2 h at 4° C. The final pellets were extracted with 1 ml 0.5 M PCA at 90° C for 20 min. DNA was measured according to Burton (5), with deoxyribose as standard. Protein was measured by the method of Lowry *et al.* (9) with bovine serum albumin (Sigma) as standard. Monospecific antibodies to purified PLC (8) were raised and purified as described (12).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

After filtration and resuspension of cells harvested in late log phase, the increase of PLC activity in the medium followed a biphasic pattern (Fig. 1). The first phase lasted about 10-15 min and was followed by a second period of increased activity which usually began about 25-30 min after resuspension of the cells. The maximal increase of PLC activity was similar in the two phases (1-2 units min^{-1}). The half-lives of the PLC activity present in supernatants from cultures harvested at various times after resuspension were similar (about 20 min) so that differences in turnover did not explain the observation.

The intracellular enzyme activity was tested in homogenates of washed bacterial cells harvested at the higher PLC synthesis rate. The cells were broken by homogenization in a Teflon-glass Potter Elvehjem homogenizer by sonication or by alu-

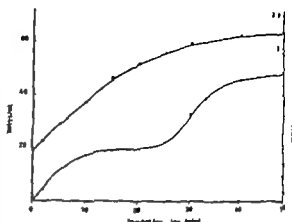


Fig. 1 Growth and synthesis of phospholipase C in *Bacillus cereus*.
—●— Absorbancy at 600 nm
—▲— Phospholipase C activity (units/ml)

mina grinding. No PLC activity or only traces were found, and no antigenic material was detectable with anti PLC antibodies in immunodiffusion or immunoelectrophoresis when extracts of 10^6 - 10^{10} cells/ml were prepared.

At high concentrations of chloramphenicol (200-400 μ g/ml) no increase in PLC activity was seen (Fig. 2). Such concentrations immediately reduced ¹⁴C-leucine incorporation into protein to about 1-2 per cent of the amount in control cultures. The cause of the 10 min lag in leucine incorporation in the control cells is unknown. Incorporation of ³H-uridine into RNA was reduced after 10 min (Fig. 3). Altogether these results indicated that the first phase of PLC increase was not caused by release of preformed enzyme present intracellularly in the

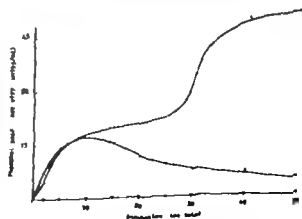


Fig. 2 Synthesis of phospholipase C in the presence of rifampicin or chloramphenicol.
—△— Control culture
—●— Rifampicin (60 μ g/ml)
—■— Chloramphenicol (400 μ g/ml)

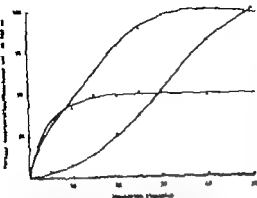


Fig 3 Incorporation of ^{14}C -leucine and ^3H -uridine into *Bacillus cereus* in the presence of chloramphenicol

- △— ^3H -uridine incorporation in control culture
- ▲— ^3H -uridine incorporation in presence of chloramphenicol (400 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$)
- ^{14}C -leucine incorporation in control culture
- ^{14}C -leucine incorporation in presence of chloramphenicol (400 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$)

For ^3H -uridine 100% is 5691 cpm/absorbancy unit

For ^{14}C -leucine 100% is 1420 cpm/absorbancy unit

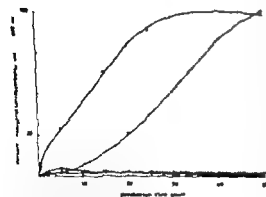


Fig 4 Incorporation of ^{14}C -leucine and ^3H -uridine in the presence of rifampicin

- △— ^3H -uridine in control cultures
- ▲— ^3H -uridine in presence of rifampicin (60 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$)
- ^{14}C -leucine in control cultures
- ^{14}C -leucine in presence of rifampicin (60 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$)

For ^3H -uridine 100% is 10000 cpm/absorbancy unit

For ^{14}C -leucine 100% is 3600 cpm/absorbancy unit

start of incubation, and that therefore excretion of PLC is closely coupled in time with its biosynthesis.

The addition of rifampicin (40–100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$) reduced the incorporation of ^3H -uridine to 52 per cent after 2 min and to about 10 per cent after 5 min (Fig. 4). However the increase in PLC activity was similar to that in the control cultures for 10–15 min (Fig. 2), whereas ^{14}C -leucine incorporation declined within 5 min (Fig. 4). After 10–15 min, the rate of PLC activity increase declined rapidly and the secondary phase of the increase was prevented completely (Fig. 2). The first phase of the increase in PLC activity was thus sensitive to chloramphenicol and resistant to rifampicin, suggesting that *de novo* synthesis of PLC took place on preformed mRNA templates, whereas the second phase required the synthesis of new mRNA.

Delayed addition of rifampicin (20–25 min after resuspension and start of incubation) resulted in the same duration and extent of PLC activity increase as immediate addition.

In preliminary experiments, 70–80 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ of nalidixic acid completely inhibited DNA replication. At this concentration, the effect on PLC synthesis was very similar or identical with that of rifampicin, i.e. permitting the first and preventing the second phase of PLC activity increase.

The synthesis of PLC in *B. cereus* thus resembled that of the various exoenzymes in *B. amylobacterium* (4, 6), in that the late log phase cells contained a pool of mRNA permitting the synthesis of exoenzymes for long periods of time in the presence of rifampicin. Also, the biphasic pattern of PLC activity increase resembled the pattern of the extracellular protease in *B. amylobacterium* (3) and the α -amylase in *B. subtilis* (15). The amino acid level in the growth medium does not seem to be related to the synthesis of PLC as in the case of the protease (3), since the rate of synthesis of PLC increases in media rich in amino acids. We have confirmed the absence of a detectable intracellular pool of enzymatically or antigenically active protein, and the results are consistent with a close coupling between synthesis, excretion and the acquisition of an active configuration, as postulated by May & Elliot (11).

The present results are partly different from the data of Both *et al.* (3) for the protease mRNA, the pool of which was exhausted during growth of resuspended bacteria at high amino acid concentrations, but similar to their observations of a significant pool of exoenzyme mRNA also in phase 2 when the cells were grown at low amino acid concentrations. The most likely explanation for the rifampicin-resistant PLC synthesis is the existence of a pool of PLC-mRNA. The biphasic synthesis

pattern is possibly due to a temporary block in RNA synthesis through changes in the levels of cyclic nucleotides caused by the manipulation of the cells during filtration washing and resuspension. This block would have to be partial and specific, since no lag in bacterial growth or RNA synthesis is observed.

The finding (3 15 present paper) that three different exoenzymes in three different strains of *Bacillus* have a biphasic synthesis pattern in common is consistent with other observations using mutants in *B. subtilis* (1 17 18) or a peptide inhibitor of exoenzyme synthesis (16). This would suggest that there is a common regulation at some step of exoenzyme synthesis in *Bacillus* strains.

Since the extracellular enzymes and toxins are important for the pathogenic effects of the *Bacillaceae*, further studies of this regulation may be of interest.

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BINDING OF AGGREGATED IgG IN THE PRESENCE OF FRESH SERUM BY GROUP A STREPTOCOCCI PRODUCING PHARYNGEAL INFECTION POSSIBLE CONNECTION WITH TYPES FREQUENTLY INVOLVED IN ACUTE NEPHRITIS

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Christensen, P., Sjöholm, A. G., Holm, S. E., Hovellius, B. & Märth, P. A. Binding of aggregated IgG in the presence of fresh serum by group A streptococci producing pharyngeal infection: possible connection with types frequently involved in acute nephritis. *Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B*, 86: 29-33, 1978.

109 streptococcal strains, belonging to diverse serological groups and types, were investigated as regards their capacity to bind IgG aggregates in the presence of fresh serum. Strains capable of such binding were not found in groups B, C, D, E, O, L, M or N. Such binding was restricted to a few types of group A streptococci: the potentially nephritogenic types 2, 6 and 12, and four strains belonging to types M 39, M 46 and M 22 or M 62, the nephritogenic capacity of which is unknown. Two of five strains isolated from patients with acute post-streptococcal glomerulonephritis (AGN) and 19/28 type T 12, SOR strains isolated during an epidemic in a kindergarten with associated cases of AGN were found to bind aggregates. The findings suggest a possible association between capacity to bind aggregates in the presence of serum and the serological types of group A streptococci involved in acute nephritis following pharyngeal infection.

Key words: Binding of aggregated IgG, group A streptococci, fresh serum, acute nephritis, pharyngeal infection.

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The association (Rammelkamp *et al.* 1952, Rammelkamp & Haver 1953) between infection with group A streptococci of certain M types and acute post-streptococcal glomerulonephritis (AGN) appears to be well established (Rammelkamp 1964). However, despite extensive investigation during the past two decades (see Giesberg 1972), the nephritogenic potential of these streptococci remains unexplained.

The etiological importance in AGN of M type 12 streptococci infecting the throat is well recognized (Rammelkamp 1964). Recently it was found (Christensen *et al.* 1977) that binding of aggregated IgG

by M +ve type 12 streptococci was high in the presence of fresh serum, while M -ve type 12 streptococci and M +ve or M -ve variants of two other types showed low uptake of IgG aggregates under the test conditions applied. The reaction was shown to be complement dependent, requiring the presence in serum of at least C1 and C4.

The present investigation included several streptococcal strains of diverse serological types and groups. In order to evaluate further a possible relationship between the nephritogenic potential of individual strains and the capacity to bind aggregated IgG in the presence of fresh serum.

pattern is possibly due to a temporary block in RNA synthesis through changes in the levels of cyclic nucleotides caused by the manipulation of the cells during filtration, washing and resuspension. This block would have to be partial and specific, since no lag in bacterial growth or RNA synthesis is observed.

The finding (3, 15 present paper) that three different exoenzymes in three different strains of *Bacillus* have a biphasic synthesis pattern in common is consistent with other observations using mutants in *B. subtilis* (1, 17, 18) or a peptide inhibitor of exoenzyme synthesis (16). This would suggest that there is a common regulation at some step of exoenzyme synthesis in *Bacillus* strains.

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TABLE 2 Uptake of Radio-labelled Aggregated IgG in the Presence of Fresh Serum by Group A Streptococci Isolated from Patients with Acute Post-streptococcal Nephritis or During an Epidemic Outbreak of Nephritis

| Strains | | Uptake of 125I-labelled aggregated IgG (per cent of 1 µg added) |
|---|-------------------|---|
| Strains isolated from patients with acute nephritis | type T 6 5390/68 | 40 |
| | type T 12 589/69 | 8 |
| | type T 12 865/66 | 0 |
| | type T 12 1070/64 | 0 |
| | type T 12 3541/64 | 52 |
| Type T 12, SOR- | | |
| strains isolated from one epidemic outbreak | | |
| | 9 strains | 0 |
| | 6 strains | 30-40 |
| | 10 strains | 40-50 |
| | 3 strains | 50-60 |

patients with acute nephritis were tested. Two of these, a T 6 and a T 12 strain, showed high uptake of aggregated IgG in the presence of fresh serum (Table 2).

Strains isolated during an epidemic in a Kinder garden. 28 strains, selected at random from T 12 strains isolated from the children in a kindergarten during an epidemic of streptococcal sore throat with transient light nephritis (Sjogren et al. 1977) were tested for reactivity with IgG aggregates in the presence of fresh serum. 19 showed high uptake of aggregated IgG (Table 2).

Strains isolated from patients without Acute Post-streptococcal Nephritis. Twenty-five strains were selected at random from throat swab specimens obtained from patients with upper respiratory tract infection but without pathological urinary microscopy findings. Thirteen bound aggregated IgG. Judging from the results of T typing and SOR and NADase tests, the strains probably belonged to the following M types: 10 to type M 12, 2 to type M 22 or M 62, and 1 strain to M 2. Of the non-reactive strains, only one was T type 12 (probably M 12), while the others belonged to other types or else were non-T-typeable (Table 3).

TABLE 3 Uptake of Radio-labelled Aggregated IgG in the Presence of Fresh Serum by Group A Streptococci Isolated from Patients without Acute Post-streptococcal Nephritis

| No. of Strains | T-type | Serum Opacity Reaction | NADase production | Implicated M-types | Uptake of 125I-labelled aggregated IgG (percentage of 1 µg added) |
|----------------|-------------|------------------------|-------------------|--------------------|---|
| 1 | 2 | + | + | M 2 | 52 |
| 1 | 2 | + | - | M 2 | 8 |
| 2 | 2 | + | + | M 2 | 8 |
| 1 | 4 | + | - | M 4, 28, 48, 60 | 0 |
| 10 | 12 | - | + | M 12 | 27-59 (mean 47) |
| 1 | 12 | - | + | M 12 | 0 |
| 2 | 12 | - | + | M 22, 62 | 50-52 |
| 1 | 12 | - | + | M 22, 62 | 0 |
| 1 | 28 | - | - | M 4, 28, 48, 60 | 0 |
| 1 | not typable | - | - | | 0 |
| 2 | not typable | - | + | | 0 |

See Jørgensen & Christensen (1977). The relation of M 62 to T 12, SOR was described by Mørsted et al. (1974).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Reference Strains

The following strains were used

Group A streptococci M 1 (8198) T 1 (SF130), M 2 (8322) M 3 (100064), M 4 (SS 241) M 5 (100065) M 6 (8302), M 8 (8324), M 9 (100067), M 11 (100068), M 12 (M + ve and M - ve variants, 1130), M 15 (100070) M 17 (8304) M 18 (EF 1896) M 22 (EF 1950), M 27 (EF 1913) M 28 (EF 1899) M 31 (8171) M 33 (EF 1926), M 36 (EF 1928), M 38 (EF 1921), M 39 (EF 1922), M 41 (EF 1924) M 42 (EF 1927) M 44 (8231) M 46 (EF 1925) and M 48 (EF 1918)

Group B streptococci type Ia (O 90S), Ib (H 36B), Ic (A 909), II (18 RS 21) III (D 136C) and the O 90R variant.

Group C streptococci T 20 J (EF 1912), K 64-0-13 (EF 1905), K 39 (EF 1904), 7 J (EF 1860), SPA 1 (EF 1854), SPA 2 (1853).

Group D streptococci 10085 (EF 1852), C 1 (EF 1919), C 3 (EF 1920).

Group G streptococci D 166B (EF 1969) 16 J (EF 1859), F 6H (EF 1911), 51/512.

Streptococci belonging to other groups group E, K 129 (EF 1948), group L, D 167 A (EF 1941), group M, D 168 A (EF 1943), group N (EF 1955).

Strains Isolated from Patients with Acute Post streptococcal Glomerulonephritis

The following group A streptococci, isolated from patients with acute post-streptococcal nephritis, were kindly supplied by Statens Serum Institut, Copenhagen, Denmark: type T 6 (5390/68), types T 12, strains 589/69 865/66 1070/64 and 3541/64

Strains Isolated during an Epidemic in a Kindergarten

Group A streptococci 28 strains, all belonging to type T 12 and with a negative serum opacity reaction (SOR-) (Maxted *et al* 1974) were selected at random from among the strains isolated during a recent epidemic in a kindergarten. 44 of 84 children were infected with this strain, as revealed by throat swab cultures, and 8 of the infected children showed slight signs of acute glomerulonephritis (urine microscopy cylinders, haematuria, proteinuria) (Bygren *et al* 1977). None of the children were clinically affected, apart from the pathological urinary affection which subsided after 2 weeks. One adult female, a relative to one of the children, developed a typical AGN with transient hypocomplementaemia

Other Group A Streptococci

Twenty five strains of group A streptococci were selected at random from throat swab cultures from patients with upper respiratory tract infection but without pathological urinary microscopy findings. The strains were T-typed and tested for opacity factor and motilinamide adenine dinucleotide glycohydrolase (NADse), as described previously (Jansson & Christen 1977)

Test for Uptake of ¹²⁵I Labelled Aggregated IgG in the Streptococci

The test conditions have been described previously (Christensen *et al* 1977). In brief 1 µg ¹²⁵I labelled IgG aggregates (50 µl) were incubated with 50 µl of fresh serum at 37° C for 30 min. 200 µl of a standard suspension of the test strain was then added, followed by incubation at 22° C for 30 min. The bacteria were separated by centrifugation and after appropriate corrections, the radioactivity bound in the bacterial pellet was expressed as percentage of the radioactivity added

RESULTS

Binding of Radio-labelled Aggregated IgG in Streptococci in the Presence of Fresh Serum

Reference Strains. 28 group A streptococci, representing 26 different M types, were tested. Of these only 3 strains showed high uptake of aggregated IgG in the presence of fresh serum. These were M 12 M + ve, M 39 and M 46 which bound 58, 39 and 44 per cent of the 1 µg aggregates added respectively. None of the other group A streptococci or the strains belonging to other serological groups bound any detectable amounts of aggregated IgG (Table 1).

Strains Isolated from Patients with Acute Post streptococcal Nephritis. Five strains isolated from

TABLE 1. Uptake of Radio-labelled Aggregated IgG by Various Reference Strains of Streptococci in the Presence of Fresh Serum

| Strain | Uptake of ¹²⁵ I-labelled aggregated IgG (percentage of 1 µg added) |
|---|---|
| Group A (25 strains) M 1 T 1 M 2, M 3 M 4 M 5 M 6 M 8 M 9 M 11 M 12 (M - ve), M 15 M 17 M 18 M 22, M 27 M 28 M 31 M 33 M 36 M 38 M 41 M 42, M 44 M 48 | 0 |
| M 12 (M + ve) | 58 |
| M 39 | 39 |
| M 46 | 44 |
| Other groups B (6 strains), C (6 strains), D (3 strains), G (4 strains), E (1 strain) L (1 strain) M (1 strain), N (1 strain) | 0 |

TABLE 2 Uptake of Radio-labelled Aggregated IgG in the Presence of Fresh Serum by Group A Streptococci Isolated from Patients with Acute Post streptococcal Nephritis or During an Epidemic Outbreak of Nephritis

| Serum | | Uptake of ¹²⁵ I-labelled aggregated IgG (per cent of 1 µg added) |
|--|-------------------|---|
| Serum isolated from patients with acute nephritis | type T 6 5390/68 | 40 |
| | type T 12 589/69 | 8 |
| | type T 12 865/66 | 0 |
| | type T 12 1070/64 | 0 |
| | type T 12 3541/64 | 52 |
| Type T 12, SOR—strains isolated from one epidemic outbreak | | |
| | 9 strains | 0 |
| | 6 strains | 30–40 |
| | 10 strains | 40–50 |
| | 3 strains | 50–60 |

patients with acute nephritis were tested. Two of these a T 6 and a T 12 strain, showed high uptake of aggregated IgG in the presence of fresh serum (Table 2).

Strains isolated during an epidemic in a Kindergarten. 28 strains, selected at random from T 12 strains isolated from the children in a kindergarten during an epidemic of streptococcal sore throat with transient light nephritis (Björns *et al.* 1977) were tested for reactivity with IgG aggregates in the presence of fresh serum. 19 showed high uptake of aggregated IgG (Table 2).

Strains Isolated from Patients without Acute Post streptococcal Nephritis. Twenty-five strains were selected at random from throat swab specimens obtained from patients with upper respiratory tract infection but without pathological urinary microscopy findings. Thirteen bound aggregated IgG. Judging from the results of T typing and SOR and NADase tests, the strains probably belonged to the following M types: 10 to type M 12, 2 to type M 22 or M 62, and 1 strain to M 2. Of the non-reactive strains, only one was T type 12 (probably M 12), while the others belonged to other types or else were non-T-typeable (Table 3).

TABLE 3 Uptake of Radio-labelled Aggregated IgG in the Presence of Fresh Serum by Group A Streptococci Isolated from Patients without Acute Post-streptococcal Nephritis

| No. of Strains | T-type | Serum Opacity Reaction | NADase production | Implanted M-types | Uptake of ¹²⁵ I-labelled aggregated IgG (percentage of 1 µg added) |
|----------------|-------------|------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|---|
| 1 | 2 | + | + | M 2 | 52 |
| 1 | 2 | — | — | M 2 | 0 |
| | 2 | | | M 2 | 8 |
| 1 | 4 | | + | M 4, 28 48 60 | 0 |
| 10 | 12 | — | + | M 12 | 27–59 (mean 47) |
| 1 | 12 | — | + | M 12 | 8 |
| 2 | 12 | | + | M 22, 62 | 50–52 |
| 1 | 12 | | | M 22, 62 | 0 |
| 1 | 28 | | + | M 4 28 48 60 | 0 |
| 3 | not typable | — | — | | 0 |
| | not typable | | | | 0 |

¹ See Harrison & Christensen (1977). The relation of M 62 to T 12, SOR was described by Maxted *et al.* (1974).

DISCUSSION

In the present investigation, 50 streptococcal reference strains of various serological types and groups were studied with regard to their capacity to bind aggregated IgG in the presence of fresh serum. Among the reference strains, reactivity was found to be restricted to three group A strains belonging to M types 12, 39 and 46. Two strains isolated from patients with AGN, one type T 6 and one type T 12 strain, also showed high uptake of IgG aggregates in the presence of fresh serum as did 19/28 type 12 strains isolated during an epidemic outbreak of sore throat with associated cases of AGN. In all 109 strains were tested and high uptake was found in 35 strains of group A streptococci restricted to a few types, the potentially nephritogenic types 2, 6 and 12 and four strains belonging to M 39, M 46 and M 22 or M 62, the nephritogenic capacity of which is not known (see below). The results were thus consistent with an association between serological

types frequently connected with nephritogenicity and capacity to bind aggregates in the presence of fresh serum as far as the strains infecting the human throat are concerned. Studies of "impetigo strains" were not included in the present investigation.

Although the nephritogenicity of group A streptococci is closely associated with certain M types (Rammelkamp 1964), it is difficult to assess this ability to produce nephritis in any single strain. Host factors such as varying susceptibility and possibly acquired immunity to AGN might affect the frequency of renal damage in an infected population. Furthermore, strains subjected to *in vitro* investigations might have altered their cell wall structure during infection (see Rohrbath & Watson 1948) or perhaps become changed during the subculture procedure in the laboratory. For example, it cannot be excluded, on the basis of the results of the present investigation, that recently isolated strains might be better able to bind

TABLE 4. *Binding of Aggregated IgG in the Presence of Fresh Serum Compared with Current Knowledge on the Nephritogenic Capacity of Group A Streptococcal Types*

| | Strains investigated | Number of strains tested | Number of strains binding aggregated IgG in the presence of fresh serum |
|---|--|--------------------------|---|
| Possibly nephritogenic strains | types of group A streptococci associated with acute nephritis (types 2, 4, 6 and 12) ^a | 27 | 15 (56%) ^c |
| | types of group A streptococci concerning the nephritogenicity of which conflicting reports exist (types 1 and 3) ^b | 3 | 0 |
| Probably not nephritogenic strains ^d | other group A streptococcal types, known not to be associated with acute nephritis or not sufficiently investigated with respect to nephritogenicity ^e T types connected with more than one M type and non-typable freshly isolated strains ^f | 28 | 4 (14%) ^c |

Types of group A streptococci isolated from patients with acute nephritis, arranged according to frequency of isolation from the throat: types 12, 1, 4, 49, 25 and 3 (Rammelkamp 1964). Type 2 was associated recently with acute nephritis (Anthony *et al.* 1974). The strains isolated from the kindergarten epidemic are not included.

^b See remark. However, Rammelkamp *et al.* (1952) and Rammelkamp & Weener (1953) failed to observe acute nephritis following a large number of untreated pharyngeal infections with types 1 and 3.

^c Rammelkamp *et al.* (1952) and Rammelkamp & Weener (1953) failed to observe acute nephritis following a large number of untreated pharyngeal infections with types 5, 19 and 24.

^d See Table 3.

Significantly more types of group A streptococci associated with acute nephritis bound aggregated IgG in the presence of fresh serum than probably not nephritogenic strains ($p < 0.05$, Chi Square Test).

aggregated IgG in the presence of fresh serum than subcultured strains. With these reservations in mind it can be concluded from extensive studies performed by Rammelkamp *et al.* (1952) and Rammelkamp & Wiener (1953) that the nephritogenic potential of type 12 group A strains is outstanding among the streptococci infecting the human throat, and that types 4, 6 and 25 can also exert a nephritogenic influence. Nevertheless, sporadic cases provoked by other types have also been described. It has been claimed recently that type 2 group A streptococci are potentially nephritogenic during throat infections (Anthony *in al.* 1974). As regards types 39 and 46 which bound aggregated IgG in the presence of fresh serum, the strains were related from the same patient in May 1941 at the Rockefeller Institute Hospital. Little is known regarding these types, and nothing is known about their nephritogenic capacity (R. C. Lancefield personal communication). The current knowledge concerning the association of nephritogenicity to certain types and the capacity to bind aggregated IgG in the presence of fresh serum is summarized in Table 4.

As discussed above, the difficulties encountered in assessing the nephritogenic capacity of any single strain are not the only reason why care must be exercised in the interpretation that binding of IgG aggregates in the presence of fresh serum is a property of nephritogenic strains. A causal relationship between nephritogenicity and ability to bind aggregates under the test conditions described remains speculative. It is of obvious interest that binding of aggregates is influenced at least by complement factors C1 and C4 (Christensen *et al.* 1977) since an ohement of the complement system is a typical feature of AGN (Michael *et al.* 1966).

To summarize, the findings in the present investigation were consistent with an association between serological types of group A streptococci (frequently connected with nephritogenicity) and an ability to bind IgG aggregates in the presence of fresh serum among the streptococci. Further studies are required to elucidate the possible connection between nephritogenicity and binding of IgG aggregates.

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DISCUSSION

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types frequently connected with nephritogenicity and capacity to bind aggregates in the presence of fresh serum, as far as the strains infecting the human throat are concerned. Studies of "impetigo strains" were not included in the present investigation.

Although the nephritogenicity of group A streptococci is closely associated with certain M types (Rammelkamp 1964), it is difficult to assess this ability to produce nephritis in any single strain. Host factors such as varying susceptibility and possibly acquired immunity to AGN might affect the frequency of renal damage in an infected population. Furthermore, strains subjected to *in vitro* investigations might have altered their cell wall structure during infection (see Rohrbach & Watson 1948), or perhaps become changed during the subculture procedure in the laboratory. For example, it cannot be excluded, on the basis of the results of the present investigation, that recently isolated strains might be better able to bind

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| | types of group A streptococci concerning the nephritogenicity of which conflicting reports exist (types 1 and 3)† | 3 | 0 |
| Probably not nephritogenic strains | other group A streptococcal types, known not to be associated with acute nephritis or not sufficiently investigated with respect to nephritogenicity T types connected with more than one M type and non-typable freshly isolated strains‡ | 28 | 4 (14%) |

* Types of group A streptococci isolated from patients with acute nephritis, arranged according to frequency of isolation from the throat: types 12, 1, 4, 49, 25 and 3 (Rammelkamp 1964). Type 2 was associated recently with acute nephritis (Anthony *et al.* 1974). The strains isolated from the kindergarten epidemic are not included.

† See remark. However, Rammelkamp *et al.* (1952) and Rammelkamp & Heener (1953) failed to observe acute nephritis following a large number of untreated pharyngeal infections with types 1 and 3. Rammelkamp *et al.* (1952) and Rammelkamp & Heener (1953) failed to observe acute nephritis following a large number of untreated pharyngeal infections with types 5, 19 and 24.

‡ See Table 3.

* Significantly more types of group A streptococci associated with acute nephritis bound aggregated IgG in the presence of fresh serum than probably not nephritogenic strains ($p < 0.05$; Chi Square Test).

SYNTHETIC DISACCHARIDE PROTEIN ANTIGEN FOR PRODUCTION OF SPECIFIC O2 ANTISERUM FOR IMMUNOFLUORESCENCE DIAGNOSIS OF SALMONELLA

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Svenungsson, B. & Lindberg, A. A. Synthetic disaccharide-protein antigens for production of specific O2 antisera for immunofluorescence diagnosis of salmonella. Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B, 86: 35-40, 1978.

Antisera from rabbits immunized with the synthetic disaccharide peritose 1-3 mannose, representative of *Salmonella* O-antigen 2, covalently linked to bovine serum albumin (BSA), were used in indirect immunofluorescence studies for the identification of *Salmonella* serogroup A (O-antigen 1,2,12) bacteria. Among 1311 enteric bacteria tested, 497 were *Salmonella*. The anti-peritose 1-3 mannose BSA serum identified correctly all the 63 serogroup A strains tested. No positive reactions were recorded among 1248 strains representing *Salmonella* other than serogroup A, *E. coli*, *Shigella*, *Citrobacter*, *Klebsiella*, *Enterobacter*, *Serratia*, *Proteus*, *Paratyphus*, *Acinetobacter*, *Yersinia* and *Bacteroides*. The study illustrates the high specificity of the antiserum elicited by immunization with the synthetic disaccharide-protein immunogen.

Key words: *Salmonella*, immunofluorescence diagnosis, synthetic disaccharide-protein, antiserum.

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A rapid and accurate diagnosis of *Salmonella* bacteria is of great importance, both in human and veterinary health care and food control. In this respect, the immunofluorescence technique is an alternative to conventional culture methods, but lack of specificity of antibody preparations used has often limited its applicability (4,5,8,16,21,24).

The serogroup designation of *Salmonella* bacteria is based on the O-antigen make-up. The O-antigenic specificity resides in the polysaccharide chain of the lipopolysaccharide, a structural component of the outer membrane of the bacterial cell envelope (19). The structure of the O-antigenic polysaccharide chain in *Salmonella* serogroup A, B, C2, C3, D and E, 1-4 has been determined previously (9-15, 19). In *Salmonella* serogroup A, B and D the chain consists of repeating units of oligosaccharides,

where the group specific antigenic determinants can be represented by disaccharides in serogroup A peritose 1-3 mannose, in serogroup B abequose 1-3 mannose, and in serogroup D tyvelose 1-3 mannose, representing the O-antigens 2, 4 and 9 respectively (Fig. 1). These antigenic determinants have been synthesized (1) and linked to bovine serum albumin (BSA) (via the synthesis of the phenylisothiocyanate disaccharide glycoside) as an immunogenic carrier (7,20). Antisera from rabbits immunized with the synthetic disaccharide-protein conjugates abequose 1-3 mannose-BSA (AM-BSA) and tyvelose 1-3 mannose-BSA (TM-BSA) were shown to be highly specific when tested in passive haemagglutination and complement-mediated bactericidal tests (7). In a previous paper we were able to demonstrate the high specificity of the anti-AM-BSA and TM-BSA sera when used for immunoflu-

TABLE 1 *ELISA Antibody Titres in Rabbits Immunized in Paradox 1-3 Manner - BSA*

| Antigen | Absorbance at 400 nm/100 mm, serum diluted 10-4 | | |
|------------------|--|--|-----------------------------------|
| | Antigen | | |
| | <i>S. paratyphi</i> A var <i>durazzo</i> (02, 12, 12) | <i>S. typhimurium</i> LT2 (04 5 12) | <i>S. typhi</i> T2 (09 12, 12) |
| PM-BSA | 23.9 | 0.23 | 0.31 |
| Pre-immunization | <0.10 | 0.12 | 0.10 |

ELISA using lipopolysaccharides (LPS) from *S. paratyphi* A var *durazzo* (7 12, 12), *S. typhi* LT2 (4 5 12) and *S. typhi* T2 (9 12, 12) (Table 1). Only in systems where the *S. paratyphi* A LPS was used as antigen could a significant increase in titre be observed between sera collected before and after immunization. Thus, in this respect the PM-BSA conjugate elicited an antibody response representative of O-antigen 2.

Indirect Immunofluorescence Studies Using Known *Salmonella* Strains

Sera from the four rabbits immunized with PM-BSA were tested against a *Salmonella paratyphi* A strain (O-antigen 2 12), using the indirect immunofluorescence technique. The end-point dilution value (defined as the last dilution which gave a 3+ reaction) after three immunizations varied between 1/2560 and 1/5120 (Table 2). When the sera were tested against either a *S. enteritidis* strain (O-antigen 9 12) or a *S. typhimurium* strain (O-antigen 4 5 12) as negative controls, no fluorescence reaction was detected with serum diluted 1/5 or more. Neither pre-immunization sera nor anti-BSA sera gave any fluorescence reactions at any dilution. The last dilution of the antiserum which gave a 4+

TABLE 2 *Indirect Immunofluorescence: End-point Titres in Rabbits Immunized in Paradox 1-3 Manner - BSA*

| Rabbit no. | End point titres | |
|------------|------------------|---------|
| | Day 38 | Day 142 |
| 1 | 1/120 | 1/2560 |
| | 1/40 | 1/2560 |
| 2 | 1/560 | 1/560 |
| 4 | 1/780 | 1/5120 |

Rabbits were immunized with 10 µg of the disaccharide protein conjugate suspended in Freund's complete adjuvant on days 0, 30 and 120.

TABLE 3 *Indirect Immunofluorescence (IFL) Studies of Salmonella Using Anti-PM-BSA and Factor O2 Serum*

| <i>Salmonella</i> serogroup | % of strains | No positive in IFL PM-BSA | Factor O2 |
|----------------------------------|--------------|------------------------------|-----------|
| A (01.2.12) | 63 | 63 | 49 |
| B (01.4.5.12) | 25 | 0 | 5 |
| C (06.7.6.8 8.20) | 25 | 0 | 0 |
| D (01.9.1.1) | 25 | 0 | 3 |
| E (03.10.3.15 3.34.1.3.19) | 25 | 0 | 0 |

4+ and 3+ reactions were scored as positive.

reaction was used as working dilution, this was usually two or three twofold dilution steps lower than the end-point titre.

163 known *Salmonella* bacteria were tested in immunofluorescence with an anti-PM-BSA serum. The strains represented *Salmonella* serogroup A (01.2.12), B (01.4.5.12), C (06.7.6.8.8.20), D (01.9.1.1) and E (03.10.3.15.3.34.1.3.19). The investigation was performed without the investigator knowing which strain or serotype was being used, and the code was not broken until the experiments were finished. All the 63 *Salmonella* serogroup A bacteria gave a brilliant fluorescence reaction with the anti-PM-BSA serum (Table 3). No false positive reactions were recorded when testing bacteria from other serogroups (Table 3). When using conventional factor O2 serum (end-point dilution 1/40), 8 false positive and 14 false negative reactions were recorded (Table 3). The fluorescence with factor O2 serum was not as bright as with anti-PM-BSA serum, and it was more difficult to

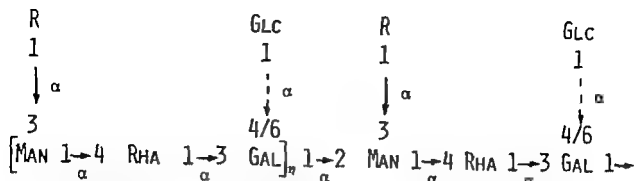


Fig 1 Structure of the O antigenic polysaccharide chain in the lipopolysaccharide from *S. paratyphi* A var durazzo serogroup A, *S. typhimurium* serogroup B and *S. enteritidis* serogroup D according to Hellerqvist et al. (9-15). R is paratose in serogroup A, abequose in serogroup B and tyvelose in serogroup D; n = 5-30. Abbreviations used: Gal, D-galactose; Glc, D-glucose; Man, D-mannose; Rha, L-rhamnose.

orescence detection of *Salmonella* serogroups B (O-antigen 1 4 5 12) and D (O-antigen 1 9 12) bacteria (23).

The present study deals with the use of an anti-paratose 1-3 mannosyl-BSA (PM BSA) serum for immunofluorescence detection of *Salmonella* serogroup A (O-antigen 1, 2, 12) bacteria. Among the 1311 enteric bacteria tested the antiserum correctly identified the 63 serogroup A strains among the 497 *Salmonella* strains tested.

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Bacterial strains The strains used came from strain collections at the Department of Bacteriology, National Bacteriological Laboratory, Stockholm, Sweden, and from Professor L. Le Minor, International Salmonella Centre, Pasteur Institute, Paris, France, or from fresh isolates for examination of pathogenic enteric bacteria (*Salmonella*, *Shigella*, *Yersinia enterocolitica*, enteropathogenic *E. coli* and *Vibrio cholerae*, *Vibrio enteritidis* and *Vibrio parahaemolyticus*). Isolation and identification of the bacteria were carried out as described elsewhere (6, 17, 22). The *Bacteroides fragilis* strains, which had been capsule stained, came from the collection of Professor C. E. Nord, National Bacteriological Laboratory.

Lipopolysaccharide extraction Lipopolysaccharides (LPS) for the enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) were extracted from *S. paratyphi* A var durazzo *S. typhimurium* LT2 and *S. nophi* T2, as described earlier (18). The LPS were further oxidized with periodate in order to render them more specific as antigens (2).

Synthetic immunogen and immunization procedure
The immunogen *p*-aminophenyl 3-O-(α -D-pyranopyranosyl)- α -D-mannopyranoside with antigen O2 specificity was synthesized and linked to bovine serum albumin (BSA) (via the synthesis of the phenylisothiocyanate disaccharide glycoside) as an immunogenic carrier (1, 7, 20). In this investigation the immunogen will be referred to as PM-BSA. Four male New Zealand white

rabbits, weight 70-25 kg, were immunized in the following way -

One week before immunization each rabbit was given a subcutaneous injection in the footpad region of phosphate buffered saline (PBS) (0.05 M pH 7.2) suspended in Freund's complete adjuvant (FCA) (total volume 0.2 ml). They were then inoculated in a palpable popliteal lymph node with 10 µg of PM BSA in PBS suspended in FCA (total volume 0.2 ml). A booster injection with the same dose was given after approximately four and eighteen weeks, and the rabbits were bled about one to two weeks after the booster injections (Table 2). *Salmonella* O factor serum 2 was prepared as described by Kauffmann (17). The specificity of the anti-PM BSA sera was estimated in an enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) (3).

Immunofluorescence studies. The indirect immunofluorescence method was used in the same way as described earlier (23). The fluorescein isothiocyanate conjugated sheep anti-rabbit globulin was obtained from the Department of Immunology National Bacteriological Laboratory Stockholm Sweden, molar F/P ratio 4.6. The dilutions of the antisera and conjugate to be used in the experiments were determined by titration before each new lot was used. A *Salmonella paratyphi* A strain (O-antigen 2, 12) was used for titration of anti PVI BSA serum and conventional factor O2 serum.

Microscopy. A Leitz orthoplan fluorescence microscope with incident light was used. The light source was a HBO-200 mercury lamp. The fluorescence was scored as 4+ strong fluorescence with brilliant margins, 3+ weaker marginal fluorescence, 2+ fairly weak fluorescence with diffuse margins, and 1+ barely distinguishable fluorescence. The 4+ and 3+ reactions were considered as positive whereas 2+ and 1+ reactions were considered negative.

RESULTS

Specificity of Anti PM BSA Serum

Sera drawn from rabbits immunized with the PM BSA conjugate were tested for specificity in

TABLE 1. ELISA Antibody Titres in Rabbits Immunized with Parasites 1-3 Mammals - BSA

| Antiserum | Absorbance at 400 nm/100 mm, serum diluted 10-4 | | |
|------------------|--|---|-----------------------------------|
| | Antigens | | |
| | <i>S. paratyphi</i> A var. durazzo (02, 12, 12) | <i>S. typhimurium</i> LT2 (04 5 1 2) | <i>S. typhi</i> T2 (09 12, 12) |
| PSI-BSA | 2.39 | 0.23 | 0.31 |
| Pre-immunization | <0.10 | 0.12 | 0.10 |

ELISA using lipopolysaccharides (LPS) from *S. paratyphi* A var. durazzo (2, 12, 12), *S. typhi* merrim LT2 (4 5 12) and *S. typhi* T2 (9 12, 12) (Table 1). Only in systems where the *S. paratyphi* A LPS was used as antigen could a significant increase in titre be observed between sera collected before and after immunization. Thus, in this respect the PSI-BSA conjugate elicited an antibody response representative of O-antigen 2.

Indirect Immunofluorescence Studies Using Known *Salmonella* Strains

Sera from the four rabbits immunized with PSI-BSA were titrated against a *Salmonella paratyphi* A strain (O-antigen 2, 12), using the indirect immunofluorescence technique. The end-point dilution value (defined as the last dilution which gave a 3+ reaction) after three immunizations varied between 1/2560 and 1/5120 (Table 2). When the sera were tested against either a *S. enteritidis* strain (O-antigen 9 12) or a *S. typhimurium* strain (O-antigen 4 5 12) as negative controls, no fluorescence reaction was detected with serum diluted 1/5 or more. Neither pre-immunization sera nor anti-BSA sera gave any fluorescence reactions at any dilution. The last dilution of the antiserum which gave a 4+

TABLE 3. Indirect Immunofluorescence (IFL) Studies of *Salmonella* Using Anti-PSI-BSA and Factor O2 Sera

| <i>Salmonella</i> serogroup | No. of strains | No. positive in IFL PSI-BSA | Factor O2 |
|----------------------------------|----------------|--------------------------------|-----------|
| A (01,2 12) | 63 | 63 | 49 |
| B (01,4,5 12) | 25 | 11 | 5 |
| C (06,7,6,8 8,20) | 25 | 0 | 0 |
| D (01,9 12) | 25 | 0 | 3 |
| E (03,10,3,15 3,34,1,3,19) | 25 | 0 | 0 |

4+ and 3+ reactions were scored as positive.

reaction was used as working dilution, this was usually two or three twofold dilution steps lower than the end-point titre.

163 known *Salmonella* bacteria were tested in immunofluorescence with an anti-PSI-BSA serum. The strains represented *Salmonella* serogroup A (01,2,12) B (01,4,5,12), C (06,7,6,8,8,20), D (01,9,12) and E (03,10,3,15,3,34,1,3,19). The investigation was performed without the investigator knowing which strain or serotype was being used, and the code was not broken until the experiments were finished. All the 63 *Salmonella* serogroup A bacteria gave a brilliant fluorescence reaction with the anti-PSI-BSA serum (Table 3). No false positive reactions were recorded when testing bacteria from other serogroups (Table 3). When using conventional factor O2 serum (end-point dilution 1/40), 8 false positive and 14 false negative reactions were recorded (Table 3). The fluorescence with factor O2 serum was not as bright as with anti-PSI-BSA serum, and it was more difficult to

TABLE 2. Indirect Immunofluorescence End-point Titres in Rabbits Immunized with Parasites 1-3 Mammals - BSA

| Rabbit no. | End point titres | |
|------------|------------------|---------|
| | Day 38 | Day 142 |
| 1 | 1/320 | 1/2560 |
| | 1/40 | 1/2560 |
| 2 | 1/2560 | 1/2560 |
| 4 | 1/1280 | 1/5120 |

Rabbits were immunized with 10 µg of the disaccharide protein conjugate suspended in Freund's complete adjuvant on day 0, 30 and 116.

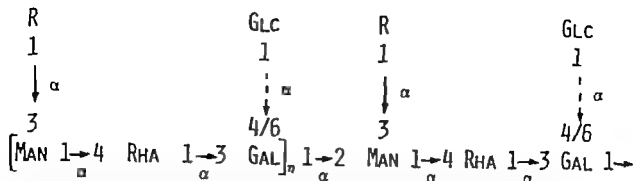


Fig. 1. Structure of the O antigenic polysaccharide chain in the lipopolysaccharide from *S. paratyphi* A var. *durazzo* serogroup A, *S. typhimurium* serogroup B and *S. enteritidis* serogroup D according to Hellerqvist *et al.* (9-15). R is paratose in serogroup A, abequose in serogroup B and tyvelose in serogroup D. $n = 5-30$. Abbreviations used: Gal, D-galactose; Glc, D-glucose; Man, D-mannose; Rha, L-rhamnose.

orescence detection of *Salmonella* serogroups B (O-antigen 1 4 5 12) and D (O-antigen 1 9 12) bacteria (23).

The present study deals with the use of an anti-paratose 1-3 mannose-BSA (PM BSA) serum for immunofluorescence detection of *Salmonella* serogroup A (O-antigen 1 2 12) bacteria. Among the 1311 enteric bacteria tested the antiserum correctly identified the 63 serogroup A strains among the 497 *Salmonella* strains tested.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial strains. The strains used came from strain collections at the Department of Bacteriology, National Bacteriological Laboratory, Stockholm, Sweden, and from Professor L. Le Minor, International Salmonella Centre, Pasteur Institute, Paris, France, or from fresh isolates for examination of pathogenic enteric bacteria (*Salmonella*, *Shigella*, *Yersinia enterocolitica*, enteropathogenic *E. coli* and *Vibrio cholerae*, *Vibrio enteritidis* and *Vibrio parahaemolyticus*). Isolation and identification of the bacteria were carried out as described elsewhere (6, 17, 22). The *Bacteroides fragilis* strains, which had been capsule-stained, came from the collection of Professor C. E. Nord, National Bacteriological Laboratory.

Lipopolysaccharide extraction. Lipopolysaccharides (LPS) for the enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) were extracted from *S. paratyphi* A var. *durazzo*, *S. typhimurium* LT2 and *S. typhi* T2 as described earlier (18). The LPS were further oxidized with periodate in order to render them more specific as antigens (2).

Synthetic immunogen and immunization procedure. The immunogen p -aminophenyl 3-O-(α -paratopyranosyl)- α -D-mannopyranoside with antigen O2 specificity was synthesized and linked to bovine serum albumin (BSA) (via the synthesis of the phenylisothiocyanate disaccharide glycoside) as an immunogenic carrier (1, 7, 20). In this investigation the immunogen will be referred to as PM BSA. Four male New Zealand white

rabbits, weight 2.0-2.5 kg, were immunized in the following way -

One week before immunization each rabbit was given a subcutaneous injection in the footpad region of phosphate buffered saline (PBS) (0.05 M, pH 7.2) suspended in Freund's complete adjuvant (FCA) (total volume 0.2 ml). They were then inoculated in a palpable popliteal lymph node with 10 μ g of PM BSA in PBS suspended in FCA (total volume 0.2 ml). A booster injection with the same dose was given after approximately four and eighteen weeks, and the rabbits were bled about one to two weeks after the booster injections (Table 2). *Salmonella* O factor serum 2 was prepared as described by Kauffmann (17). The specificity of the anti-PM BSA sera was estimated in an enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) (3).

Immunofluorescence studies. The indirect immunofluorescence method was used in the same way as described earlier (23). The fluorescein isothiocyanate conjugated sheep anti-rabbit globulin was obtained from the Department of Immunology, National Bacteriological Laboratory, Stockholm, Sweden, molar F/P ratio 4.6. The dilutions of the antisera and conjugate to be used in the experiments were determined by titration before each new lot was used. A *Salmonella paratyphi* A strain (O-antigen 1 12) was used for titration of anti-PM BSA serum and conventional factor O² serum.

Microscopy. A Lertz orthoplan fluorescence microscope with incident light was used. The light source was a HBO-200 mercury lamp. The fluorescence was scored as 4+ strong fluorescence with brilliant margins, 3+ weaker marginal fluorescence, 2+ fairly weak fluorescence with diffuse margins, and 1+ barely distinguishable fluorescence. The 4+ and 3+ reactions were considered as positive, whereas 2+ and 1+ reactions were considered negative.

RESULTS

Specificity of Anti PM BSA Serum

Sera drawn from rabbits immunized with the PM BSA conjugate were tested for specificity in

TABLE 1. *ELISA Antibody Titres in Rabbits Immunized with Paratose 1-3 Mannose-BSA*

| Antiserum | Absorbance at 400 nm/100 mm, serum diluted 10 ⁻⁴ | | |
|------------------|---|--|---|
| | Antigens | | |
| | <i>S. paratyphi</i> A var <i>danzon</i> (O ₁₂ , 12, 12) | <i>S. typhimurium</i> LT2 (O ₄ 5 12) | <i>S. typhi</i> T2 (O ₉ 12, 12) |
| PA-BSA | 23.9 | 0.23 | 0.31 |
| Pre-immunization | <0.10 | 0.12 | 0.10 |

ELISA using lipopolysaccharides (LPS) from *S. paratyphi* A var *danzon* (2, 12, 12), *S. typhimurium* LT2 (4, 5, 12) and *S. typhi* T2 (9, 12, 12) (Table 1). Only in systems where the *S. paratyphi* A LPS was used as antigen could a significant increase in titre be observed between sera collected before and after immunization. Thus, in this respect the PA-BSA conjugate elicited an antibody response representative of O-antigen 2.

Indirect Immunofluorescence Studies Using Known *Salmonella* Strains

Sera from the four rabbits immunized with PA-BSA were tested against a *Salmonella paratyphi* A strain (O-antigen 2, 12), using the indirect immunofluorescence technique. The end-point dilution value (defined as the last dilution which gave a 3+ reaction) after three immunizations varied between 1/2560 and 1/5120 (Table 2). When the sera were tested against either a *S. enteritidis* strain (O-antigen 9, 11) or a *S. typhimurium* strain (O-antigen 4, 5, 12) as negative controls, no fluorescence reaction was detected with serum diluted 1/5 or more. Neither pre-immunization sera nor anti-BSA sera gave any fluorescence reactions at any dilution. The last dilution of the antiserum which gave a 4+

TABLE 3. *Indirect Immunofluorescence (IFL) Studies of Salmonella Using Anti-PA-BSA and Factor O2 Sera*

| <i>Salmonella</i> serogroup | No. of strains | No. positive in IFL | |
|---|-------------------|---------------------|-----------|
| | | PA-BSA | Factor O2 |
| A (O ₁₂ , 12) | 63 | 63 | 49 |
| B (O ₁ 4 5 12) | 25 | 0 | 5 |
| C (O ₆ , 7 6 8 8, 20) | 25 | 0 | 0 |
| D (O ₁ 9 12) | 25 | 0 | 3 |
| E (O ₃ 10 3 15 3, 34 1 3 19) | 25 | 0 | 0 |

4+ and 3+ reactions were scored as positive.

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163 known *Salmonella* bacteria were tested in immunofluorescence with an anti-PA-BSA serum. The strains represented *Salmonella* serogroup A (O₁₂, 12), B (O₁ 4 5 12), C (O₆ 7 6 8, 8 20), D (O₁ 9 12) and E (O₃ 10 3 15 3 34 1 3 19). The investigation was performed without the investigator knowing which strain or serotype was being used, and the code was not broken until the experiments were finished. All the 63 *Salmonella* serogroup A bacteria gave a brilliant fluorescence reaction with the anti-PA-BSA serum (Table 3). No false positive reactions were recorded when testing bacteria from other serogroups (Table 3). When using conventional factor O2 serum (end-point dilution 1/40), 8 false positive and 14 false negative reactions were recorded (Table 3). The fluorescence with factor O2 serum was not as bright as with anti-PA-BSA serum, and it was more difficult to

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| Rabbit no. | End-point titres | |
|------------|------------------|------------------|
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| 1 | 1/320 1/40 | 1/2560 1/2560 |
| 2 | 1/560 | 1/560 |
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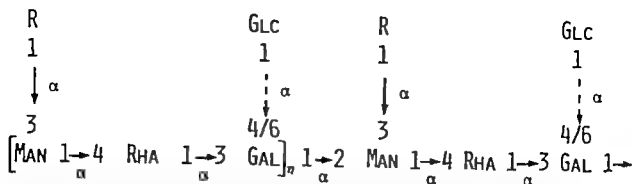


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RESULTS

Specificity of Anti PM BSA Serum

Sera drawn from rabbits immunized with the PM BSA conjugate were tested for specificity in

DISCUSSION

The accuracy of identification of microorganisms with the aid of antibodies is a direct consequence of the specificity of the antibody preparations used. However mere immunization of experimental animals with bacteria, live or killed, with their multitude of different antigens elicits a range of antibodies with different specificities. To render the animals suitable for diagnostic work, absorptions must be performed for removal of antibodies with undesired specificities. The preparation of absorbed antisera for the serological identification of *Salmonella* and many other enteric bacteria is therefore a common procedure in microbiological laboratories. However absorptions are seldom complete, and often the titre of antibodies with the desired specificity is also decreased. Consequently the resulting antibody preparations may be less than satisfactory for certain purposes, e.g. immunofluorescence studies.

Selection of key antigenic determinants which are coupled to immunogenic carriers should provide antisera which could elicit monospecific antisera at least in theory. The synthetic disaccharide paritose (1-3) isomerase, representing the determinant for *Salmonella* O antigen 2 was coupled as hapten to bovine serum albumin (BSA). Antisera elicited in rabbits had high titres as determined in the ELISA assay (Table 1). The specificity of the antisera was evident in that no significant increase above preimmunization levels was seen when LPS from *S. typhimurium* LT2 (serogroup B) or *S. napa* T2 (serogroup D) were used as antigens. The immunofluorescence studies, using the indirect technique, also demonstrated the high specificity of the anti-PSI-BSA serum. All 63 *Salmonella* serogroup A isolates were identified correctly. No false positives were recorded among a total of 434 *Salmonella* strains belonging to other serogroups (Tables 3 and 5).

The specificity of the anti-PSI BSA serum was compared with a conventional absorbed factor O2 serum on 163 *Salmonella* strains (Table 3). Using the factor O2 serum, both false negative (22 percent) and false positive (8 percent) reactions were recorded. This illustrates the problem of obtaining specific antisera by immunization with whole bacteria followed by absorption procedures. The end-point titre of the factor O2 serum was also much lower (1/40) than the titres observed with the anti-PSI BSA sera (1/2560-1/5120). It should be stressed however that the factor O2 serum was prepared for slide agglutination.

The specificity of the anti-PSI BSA serum was considered to be high also when 667 non-*Salmonella*

enteric bacteria were examined (Table 4). With the exception of a few occasional non-reproducible positive reactions with *Bacteroides fragilis*, no positive isolates were found. As observed earlier with the anti-TN1 BSA serum, a few *Bacteroides fragilis* strains (later shown to be encapsulated) stained with the antiserum elicited by immunization with the disaccharide-protein conjugate (23). However absorption experiments have shown that the antibodies that react with the anaerobic bacteria are not directed against the disaccharide haptens. The exact cause of the cross-reactivity observed is not known. The problems encountered in reproducing these reactions make us believe that the antibodies concerned react with the *B. fragilis* capsule. It must be stressed that the cross-reactions with *B. fragilis* do not cause any problems in the diagnostic work as long as the immunofluorescence tests are performed on bacteria grown under aerobic conditions.

This work was supported by grants from the Swedish Medical Research Council (No 40 X-436) and the Swedish Board of Technical Development (No 74-4852 and No 75-3526). We are thankful to Professor L. Le Ahear for supplying *Salmonella* serogroup A strains, and to Mrs A. C. Palmgren for excellent technical assistance.

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distinguish between positive and negative reactions. Thus, we conclude that the anti-PM BSA serum was more specific and suitable for immunofluorescence detection of *Salmonella* serogroup A bacteria than conventional factor O2 serum.

Indirect Immunofluorescence Studies Using Known Non *Salmonella* Enteric Bacteria

The specificity of the anti PM BSA serum was subsequently tested by examining 667 non-*Salmonella* enteric bacteria. The strains came either from the strain collection or were fresh isolates representing common microorganisms in the gut. 475 of the strains examined belonged to *Enterobacteriaceae* and all were negative. All strains of *Pseudomonas*, *Aeromonas*, *Actinobacter*, *Vibrio cholerae*, *V. enteritidis* and *V. parahaemolyticus* were also negative. Out of 154 *Bacteroides fragilis* strains tested, 7 were positive in the initial test but negative when reexamined three times (Table 4). The reason for this remains unexplained.

TABLE 4 Indirect Immunofluorescence Studies of Enterobacteria other than *Salmonella* Using Anti PM BSA Serum

| Genus/species | No. of strains | No. positive in IFL ^a |
|------------------------------------|----------------|----------------------------------|
| <i>E. coli</i> | 237 | 0 |
| <i>Shigella</i> | 14 | 0 |
| <i>Citrobacter</i> | 12 | 0 |
| <i>Klebsiella</i> | 55 | 0 |
| <i>Enterobacter</i> | 12 | 0 |
| <i>Serratia</i> | 4 | 0 |
| <i>Proteus</i> | 132 | 0 |
| <i>Pseudomonas</i> | 25 | 0 |
| <i>Actinobacter</i> | 3 | 0 |
| <i>Yersinia enterocolitica</i> | 2 | 0 |
| <i>Yersinia pseudotuberculosis</i> | 7 | 0 |
| <i>Vibrio cholerae</i> | 5 | 0 |
| <i>Vibrio enteritidis</i> | 3 | 0 |
| <i>Vibrio parahaemolyticus</i> | 2 | 0 |
| <i>Bacteroides fragilis</i> | 154 | 7 ^b |
| Total | 667 | 7 |

^a 4+ and 3+ reactions were scored as positive

^b All 7 strains were scored as negative when reexamined three times

Indirect Immunofluorescence Studies Using Unknown Enteric Bacteria from Faecal Samples

A further investigation was done on colony material from fresh faecal samples submitted for examination. The experiments were carried out as follows:—

One loopful of a suspect colony was suspended in a drop of PBS on a glass slide for immunofluorescence examination. One loopful of the same colony was inoculated simultaneously in test tubes for biochemical reactions and on agar plates for subsequent serological investigation. A total of 481 samples was examined, among which 334 *Salmonella* were found. They represented 10 different serogroups and 26 different species (Table 5). No *Salmonella* serogroup A strains were found among the samples examined. All the *Salmonella* strains were negative as were 147 strains which were not *Salmonella* (Table 5). *Proteus* species dominated among the non *Salmonella* strains.

TABLE 5 Indirect Immunofluorescence Studies of Suspect *Salmonella* Bacterial Colonies

| Serogroups ^a | No. of strains | No. of positive in IFL ^b |
|----------------------------|----------------|-------------------------------------|
| B (O1 4,5 12) 7 species | 141 | 0 |
| C1 (O6 7) 6 species | 67 | 0 |
| C2 (O6 8) 3 species | 8 | 0 |
| D1 (O1 9 12) 1 species | 33 | 0 |
| E1 (O3 10) 3 species | 15 | 0 |
| E4 (O1 3 19) 2 species | 56 | 0 |
| G1 (O1 13,22) 1 species | 3 | 0 |
| I (O 16) 1 species | 1 | 0 |
| K (O 18) 1 species | 5 | 0 |
| O (O 35) 1 species | 1 | 0 |
| Non- <i>Salmonella</i> | 147 | 0 |
| Total | 481 | 0 |

^a Serogroup Classification is according to Kawfmann (17), the O-antigen formula is given in brackets

^b Registration of the fluorescence reaction was as in Table 3

DISCUSSION

The accuracy of identification of microorganisms with the aid of antibodies is a direct consequence of the specificity of the antibody preparations used. However mere immunization of experimental animals with bacteria, live or killed, with their multitude of different antigens elicits a range of antibodies with different specificities. To render the system suitable for diagnostic work absorptions must be performed for removal of antibodies with undesired specificities. The preparation of absorbed antisera for the serological identification of *Salmonella* and many other enteric bacteria is therefore a common procedure in microbiological laboratories. However absorptions are seldom complete, and often the titre of antibodies with the desired specificity is also decreased. Consequently the resulting antibody preparations may be less than satisfactory for certain purposes, e.g. immunofluorescence studies.

Selection of key antigenic determinants which are coupled to immunogenic carriers should provide antigens which could elicit monospecific antisera at least in theory. The synthetic disaccharide paminose (—) mannose, representing the determinant for *Salmonella* O antigen 2, was coupled as hapten to bovine serum albumin (BSA). Antisera elicited in rabbits had high titres as determined in the ELISA assay (Table 1). The specificity of the antisera was evident in that no significant increase above preimmunization levels was seen when LPS from *S. typhimurium* LT2 (serogroup B) or *S. typhi* T2 (serogroup D) were used as antigens. The immunofluorescence studies, using the indirect technique, also demonstrated the high specificity of the anti-PV BSA serum. All 63 *Salmonella* serogroup A isolates were identified correctly. No false positives were recorded among a total of 434 *Salmonella* strains belonging to other serogroups (Tables 3 and 5).

The specificity of the anti-PV BSA serum was compared with a conventional absorbed factor O2 serum on 163 *Salmonella* strains (Table 3). Using the factor O2 serum both false negatives (22 percent) and false positives (8 percent) reactions were recorded. This illustrates the problem of obtaining specific antisera by immunization with whole bacteria followed by absorption procedures. The end-point titre of the factor O2 serum was also much lower (1/40) than the titres observed with the anti-PV BSA sera (1/2560–1/5120). It should be stressed, however, that the factor O2 serum was prepared for slide glass agglutination.

The specificity of the anti-PV BSA serum was considered to be high also when 667 non-*Salmonella*

to enteric bacteria were examined (Table 4). With the exception of a few occasional, non reproducible positive reactions with *Bacteroides fragilis* no positive isolates were found. As observed earlier with the anti-TM BSA serum, a few *Bacteroides fragilis* strains (later shown to be encapsulated) stained with the antiserum elicited by immunization with the disaccharide-protein conjugate (23). However absorption experiments have shown that the antibodies that react with the anaerobic bacteria are not directed against the disaccharide haptens. The exact cause of the cross-reactivity observed is not known. The problems encountered in reproducing these reactions make us to believe that the antibodies concerned react with the *B. fragilis* capsule. It must be stressed that the cross-reactions with *B. fragilis* do not cause any problems in the diagnostic work as long as the immunofluorescence tests are performed on bacteria grown under aerobic conditions.

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CHEMOTYPES OF *FUSOBACTERIUM NUCLEATUM* LIPOPOLYSACCHARIDES

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Fredriksen, G. & Hofstad, T. Chemotypes of *Fusobacterium nucleatum* lipopolysaccharides. Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B 86 41-45 1978

Lipopolysaccharides (LPS) were isolated from 20 strains of *Fusobacterium nucleatum* and examined by paper chromatography, gas liquid chromatography and colorimetric methods for the presence of neutral sugars, amino sugars and 2-keto-3-deoxy-octonate (KDO). The LPS had as common glucosamine, L-glycine-D-manno-heptose, glucose and KDO. The KDO content was low. Galactose, rhamnose and D-phospho-D-manno-heptose were found in some strains. Based on the sugar composition of the LPS, the *F. nucleatum* strains could be classified into six chemotypes.

Key words: *F. nucleatum*, lipopolysaccharides, chemotypes.

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Lipopolysaccharides (LPS) isolated from *Fusobacterium nucleatum* are structured particles (9) which consist of a polysaccharide and a lipid component (13). The latter has a structure resembling the lipid A of *Salmonella* (5). The *F. nucleatum* LPS are endotoxins (22, 23) and possess α -toxin gene specificity (14).

Glucosamine, heptose and small amounts (<1.5 per cent) of 2-keto-3-deoxy-octonate (KDO) were present in LPS from the strains ATCC 10953, Fer 1 and III of *F. nucleatum* (13). In addition, LPS from Fer 1 contained glucose and rhamnose, LPS from Fer I contained glucose and mannose, and LPS from ATCC 10953 contained galactose and mannose. The results suggested a similarity in chemical composition of the polysaccharide part of LPS from *F. nucleatum* and *Salmonella*. However, the apparent lack of glucose in one LPS and the finding of less than 1.5 per cent of KDO indicated structural dissimilarities. LPS isolated from 17 other *F. nucleatum* strains have therefore been examined, and the LPS from the three strains studied previously have been re-examined, using gas liquid chromatography in addition to paper chromatography and colorimetric methods.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Strains

The origin of *F. nucleatum* strains ATCC 10953, Fer 1, FI and VPI 4355 (= ATCC 25586) have been described previously (6, 12). Fifteen strains (FJ-FS to FI8) were isolated from the saliva of the same number of healthy human subjects. The strains were identified as *F. nucleatum* on the basis of cellular and colonial morphology, biochemical properties and antibiotic susceptibility patterns (21). Strain Fus-MC8 was isolated from an infected root canal of *Molucca cynomolgus* (1).

Cultural Conditions

Cultures were grown for 48 h in screw-cap bottles fitted to the top with the following medium (g/l): Tryptone (Oxoid) 15.0, NaCl 5.0, KH_2PO_4 1.5, $\text{Na}_2\text{HPO}_4 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$ 3.5, NaHCO_3 0.5, yeast extract (Oxoid) 3.0, L-cysteine HCl 1.0, vitamins B₁₂ 0.001, biotin 0.005, methionine 0.001 and glucose 2.5, pH 7.0. The microorganisms were harvested by centrifugation, washed twice with saline, and stored at -25°C until used.

Isolation of LPS

The frozen microorganisms were crushed by five passages through a bacterial press, extracted overnight with phosphate buffered saline, pH 7.4, and defatted by washing with ethanol-diethyl ether and acetone (12). The acetone-dried material was extracted with phenol-water

(29) at 20° C for 15 min, and the LPS purified from the water phase by ultracentrifugation (100 000 × g for 90 min) and treatment with ribonuclease and deoxyribonuclease (7).

Paper Chromatography

Samples of LPS were hydrolysed at 100° C with 0.1 N HCl for 48 h, 2 N HCl for 6 h and 0.025 N H₂SO₄ for 30 min. The 0.1 N HCl and the 0.025 N H₂SO₄ hydrolysates were neutralized with Amberlite IRA 410 HCO₃⁻ form, and Ba(OH)₂ respectively. Acid was removed from the 2 N HCl hydrolysates by evaporation *in vacuo* in the presence of NaOH pellets. The samples were subjected to circular paper chromatography on Whatman No. 1 paper with *n*-butanol pyridine: water (6.4:3 by vol.), *n*-butanol pyridine:0.1 N HCl (5:3:2 by vol.) and *n*-butanol:acetic acid: water (4:1:1 by vol) for separation of neutral sugars, KDO and amino sugars, respectively. The dried chromatograms were stained with silver nitrate or aniline hydrogen phthalate. The Elson-Morgan reagent (18) was used for detection of amino sugars, and the thiobarbituric acid reagent of Warren (25) for detection of KDO.

Gas Liquid Chromatography (GLC)

For chromatography of neutral sugars, samples were hydrolysed with 0.1 N HCl for 48 h at 100° C. The hydrolysed samples were neutralized with Amberlite IRA 410 HCO₃⁻ form, and the aldoses converted to alditol acetates, as described by Sawardeker *et al.* (19). GLC was run in a Perkin-Elmer 900 Gas Chromatograph with a flame ionization detector and fitted with a glass column (internal diameter 0.20 cm, 180 cm long) packed with 3 per cent ECNSS-M (W/W) on Gas-Chrom Q 100-120 mesh (Applied Science Laboratories, State College, Pa. USA). The flow of N₂ gas was 30 ml per min, and the column injector and detector temperatures were 180, 200 and 250° C respectively. D-xylose was used as an internal standard. The nature of the sugars was determined by comparison of the retention times of their alditol acetates with those of reference alditol acetates (Sugar Mix 1 and Sugar Mix 2, Supelco Inc., Bellefonte, Pa. USA). LPS from *Salmonella typhi* strain 0901 (Difco Laboratories, Detroit, Mich. USA), treated as indicated, were used as reference substance for L-glycero-D-manno-heptose.

For chromatography of amino sugars, samples of LPS were hydrolysed in 2 N HCl at 100° C for 6 h in an atmosphere of N₂. The hydrolysed samples were neutralized by addition of Na₂CO₃ followed by NaHCO₃. Alditol acetates were prepared as described by Niedermeier (16), but acetic acid was used instead of HCl for decomposition of sodium borohydride. The specimens were analysed in the Perkin-Elmer gas chromatograph on a glass column packed with Poly A 103 (17) on AW DVCIS 100-120 mesh (Supelco Inc.). The flow of gas (N₂) was 30 ml per min, and the column, injector and detector temperatures were 200, 225 and 250° C, respectively. D-glucosamine HCl and D-galactosamine HCl were used as reference substances and D-mannosamine HCl as internal standard.

Colorimetric Determinations

The presence of KDO was investigated by the thiobarbituric acid method (28). Samples of LPS were hydrolysed with 0.02 N H₂SO₄ for 20 min at 100° C, or with 0.1 N HCl as indicated under "Paper chromatography". The optical density was examined in the range of 500 to 600 nm and a peak or a shoulder at 550 nm was recorded as a positive reaction. Heptose was estimated by the sulphuric acid cysteine reaction of Dische (2). The optical density was examined in the range of 450 to 600 nm. A peak or a shoulder at 500 to 510 nm was taken as a qualitative indication of heptose. LPS from *Yersinia* Ve 5 (8) and *Salmonella typhi* 0901 were used as positive controls for KDO and heptose, respectively.

RESULTS

All LPS produced an absorption peak at 500-505 nm in the sulphuric acid cysteine reaction of Dische. Likewise, LPS from all strains hydrolysed with 0.02 N H₂SO₄ gave a positive reaction for KDO. The peak at 550 nm was low compared to that produced by similar amounts of *Yersinia* LPS (Fig. 1). The thiobarbituric acid reaction was also performed on 1 mg samples of LPS from strain Fev 1 hydrolysed with 0.1 N HCl for 1/4, 1 and 18 h at 100° C. The peak height at 550 nm of the samples hydrolysed for 1/4, 1 and 4 h was the same. Samples hydrolysed for 18 h gave a low and broad plateau in the region of 530 to 550 nm.

Paper chromatography revealed the presence in LPS of all strains of glucosamine, glucose and heptose, identified as glycerol-manno-heptose. KDO was detected in trace amounts in all but a few LPS. Galactose or rhamnose was found in LPS from a few strains.

By GLC L-glycero-D-manno-heptose was found in LPS from all strains. In addition, most LPS gave another peak in the heptose region. By comparison with the chromatogram of LPS of *Salmonella typhimurium* SL 3150 (15), the sugar was identified as D-glycero-D-manno-heptose. A few LPS contain

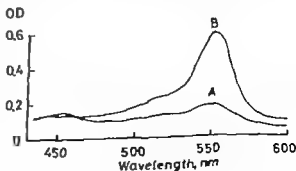


Fig. 1. The absorption spectra in the thiobarbituric acid reaction of 2 mg of LPS from *F. nucleation* strain F 13 (A) and *Yersinia* strain Ve 5 (B).

ned trace amounts of galactosamine, mannose or ribose (less than 0.1 per cent); otherwise the results of the GLC corresponded to those of paper chromatography.

Based on the results of the chromatographic and

colorimetric examinations the LPS from the 20 *F. nucleatum* strains could be divided into six chemotypes (Table 1). The content of the different sugars, particularly glucose, varied from one LPS to another also within the same chemotype (Table 2).

TABLE 1. Chemotypes of LPS isolated from 20 strains of *F. nucleatum*

| Chemotype | Origin of LPS | Sugar constituents | | | | | | |
|-----------|--|--------------------|-----|-----|-------|-------|-----|-----|
| | | GlcN | Glc | KDO | L-hep | D-hep | Gal | Rha |
| I | VP14355 F19 | x x | x x | x x | x x | | | |
| II | Fev 1 F5 F7 F8 F15 F10 F13, F14 F16 | x x | x x | x x | x x | x | | |
| III | ATOC 10953 | x x | x x | x x | x x | | x | |
| IV | F6 F11 | x x | x x | x x | x x | x | x | |
| V | F1 F3 F9 F12, F17 | x x | x x | x x | x x | x | | x |
| VI | Fos-ΔCII | x x | x x | x x | x x | | | x |

GlcN = glucosamine, Glc = glucose, KDO = 2-keto-3-deoxy-octonate, L-hep = L-glycero-D-manno-heptose, D-hep = D-glycero-D-manno-heptose, Gal = galactose, Rha = rhamnose.

TABLE 2. Molar Ratios of Neutral Sugars Present in LPS Chemotypes I to VI, of *F. nucleatum*

| Chemotype | No. of LPS | Molar ratios of | | | | |
|-----------|------------|-----------------|---------|---------|---------|-------|
| | | L-hep | D-hep | Glc | Gal | Rha |
| I | 2 | 1 | | 0.4-6.5 | | |
| II | 9 | 1 | 0.3-0.9 | 0.4-2.2 | | |
| III | 1 | 1 | | 1 | 0.7 | |
| IV | 2 | 1 | 0.4-0.7 | 1.6-1.8 | 0.5-0.5 | |
| V | 5 | 1 | 0.2-0.8 | 0.9-4.4 | | 0.2-2 |
| VI | 1 | 1 | | 1.8 | | 0.5 |

see legend to Table 1

DISCUSSION

The main implication of the present study is that *F. nucleatum* can be classified into chemotypes on the basis of the sugar composition of the cell wall lipopolysaccharide. It remains to be shown that there is a correlation between chemotypes and serotypes which undoubtedly exist in this organism (14).

With the exception of D-glycero-D-manno-heptose, the sugars found in the *F. nucleatum* LPS are common constituents of LPS from other bacterial species. D-glycero-D-manno-heptose, which may be an intermediate in the formation of L-glycero-D-manno-heptose (15), is present regularly in LPS of *Proteus vulgaris* (20). It is a common constituent of *P. mirabilis* LPS (11) and has been found in LPS isolated from *Yersinia pestis* (4) and the taxonomi-

(29) at 20° C for 15 min, and the LPS purified from the water phase by ultracentrifugation (100 000 × g for 90 min) and treatment with ribonuclease and deoxyribonuclease (7).

Paper Chromatography

Samples of LPS were hydrolysed at 100° C with 0.1 N HCl for 48 h, 2 N HCl for 6 h and 0.025 N H₂SO₄ for 30 min. The 0.1 N HCl and the 0.025 N H₂SO₄ hydrolysates were neutralized with Amberlite IRA 410 HCO₃⁻ form, and Ba(OH)₂, respectively. Acid was removed from the 2 N HCl hydrolysates by evaporation *in vacuo* in the presence of NaOH pellets. The samples were subjected to circular paper chromatography on Whatman No. 1 paper with *n*-butanol, pyridine: water (6:4:3 by vol.), *n*-butanol:pyridine:0.1 N HCl (5:1:2 by vol.) and *n*-butanol:acetic acid:water (4:1:1 by vol) for separation of neutral sugars, KDO and amino sugars, respectively. The dried chromatograms were stained with silver nitrate or aniline hydrogen phthalate. The Elson-Morgan reagent (18) was used for detection of amino sugars, and the thiobarbituric acid reagent of Warren (25) for detection of KDO.

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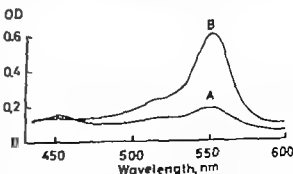


Fig. 1. The absorption spectra in the thiobarbituric acid reaction of 1 mg of LPS from *F. nucleatum* strain F 13 (A) and *Yellomella* strain Ve 5 (B).

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cally remote organisms *Rhodospseudomonas gelatigena* (27), *Rhodospirillum rubrum* (26) and *Chromatium vinosum* (10).

The study confirmed the previous observations of apparently small amounts of KDO in *Fusobacterium* LPS (6, 13). A low content of KDO was found also in LPS from *C. vinosum* (10). Comparatively strong acid was required to release the thiobarbituric acid positive material from this LPS. This does not seem to be true for *F. nucleatum* LPS. The finding of a low content of KDO relative to other sugar constituents, for instance L-glycero-D-manno-heptose, suggests that the linkage of the polysaccharide part of the *F. nucleatum* LPS to the lipid A moiety may differ from that of enterobacterial LPS. However, by mild acid hydrolysis, KDO may be converted to anhydro derivatives that do not react with the thiobarbituric acid reagent (24). Also KDO may be substituted in such a way that formylpyruvic acid, which is necessary for a positive thiobarbituric acid reaction, is not produced on reaction with periodate (3).

The varying relative amounts of the sugar constituents (cf. Table 2) suggest differences in structure of the LPS also within the same chemotype. It cannot be excluded, however, that some of the glucose may have originated from small amounts of contaminating glucans. In the previous study (13), the LPS of ATCC 10953 were found to lack glucose. It is probable that in that study the glucose band on the paper chromatograms was obscured by the stronger band given by heptose.

The quantitative GLC analysis revealed the presence in all LPS of glucosamine, L-glycero-D-manno-heptose and glucose. If glucosamine is present only in the lipid A, the findings may indicate a common polysaccharide core (or polysaccharide core backbone) structure involving KDO, L-glycero-D-manno-heptose and glucose. Degradation studies are needed to answer this question. Another unsolved problem is whether all O-antigenic specificities are carried by a number of repeating side chains linked to a single common polysaccharide core unit.

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cally remote organisms *Rhodopseudomonas gelatigena* (27) *Rhodospirillum rubrum* (26) and *Chromatium vinosum* (10)

The study confirmed the previous observations of apparently small amounts of KDO in *Fusobacterium* LPS (6-13). A low content of KDO was found also in LPS from *C. vinosum* (10). Comparatively strong acid was required to release the thiobarbituric acid positive material from this LPS. This does not seem to be true for *F. nucleatum* LPS. The finding of a low content of KDO relative to other sugar constituents for instance L-glycero-D-manno-heptose, suggests that the linkage of the polysaccharide part of the *F. nucleatum* LPS to the lipid A moiety may differ from that of enterobacterial LPS. However by mild acid hydrolysis, KDO may be converted to anhydro derivatives that do not react with the thiobarbituric acid reagent (24). Also KDO may be substituted in such a way that formylpyruvic acid which is necessary for a positive thiobarbituric acid reaction, is not produced on reaction with periodate (3).

The varying relative amounts of the sugar constituents (cf. Table 2) suggest differences in structure of the LPS also within the same chemotype. It cannot be excluded however that some of the glucose may have originated from small amounts of contaminating glucans. In the previous study (13) the LPS of ATCC 10953 were found to lack glucose. It is probable that in that study the glucose band on the paper chromatograms was obscured by the stronger band given by heptose.

The quantitative GLC analysis revealed the presence in all LPS of glucosamine, L-glycero-D-manno-heptose and glucose. If glucosamine is present only in the lipid A, the findings may indicate a common polysaccharide core (or polysaccharide core backbone) structure involving KDO, L-glycero-D-manno-heptose and glucose. Degradation studies are needed to answer this question. Another unsolved problem is whether all O-antigenic specificities are carried by a number of repeating side chains linked to a single common polysaccharide core unit.

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CHEMOTYPES OF *VEILLONELLA* LIPOPOLYSACCHARIDES

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Hofstad, T. Chemotypes of *Veillonella* lipopolysaccharides. Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B, 86: 47-50, 1978

Lipopolysaccharides (LPS) were isolated by phenol-water extraction from 34 strains of *Veillonella*, and estimated by paper chromatography and colorimetric methods for the presence of neutral sugars, amino sugars and 2-keto-3-deoxy-octonate (KDO). Several preparations were also examined for neutral sugars by gas liquid chromatography. The LPS had as common glucosamine, galactosamine, L-glycero-D-manno-heptose, glucose and KDO. Most LPS contained galactose, and a few ribonose. D-glycero-D-manno-heptose was found in LPS from one of the strains. Based on the sugar composition of the LPS, the *Veillonella* strains could be classified into four chemotypes.

Key words: *Veillonella*, lipopolysaccharides, chemotypes.

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Lipopolysaccharides (LPS) of *Veillonella* are potent endotoxins (20, 21) and exhibit O-antigenic specificity (9, 16) which depends on the polysaccharide component of the LPS. This component has been studied in some detail (6, 8). LPS isolated from four oral *Veillonella* strains (Ve 5, Ve 6, Ve 8 and Ve 9) had as common 2-keto-3-deoxy-octonate (KDO), heptose, glucose, glucosamine and galactosamine, but varied with respect to the presence of galactose and ribose (8). KDO, heptose and hexosamine were also present in LPS of the *Veillonella* type strains ATCC 10790, ATCC 17744, ATCC 17745 and ATCC 17748 (6). Glucose was present in LPS of all type strains, except ATCC 17745. LPS from ATCC 10790 and ATCC 17745 contained galactose, and LPS from ATCC 17744 contained ribonose.

The investigations indicated the presence in *Veillonella* LPS of chemotypes which might be partly responsible for the O-antigenic specificity. Unusual findings were the presence in LPS from one of the oral *Veillonella* strains (Ve 5) of ribose, and especially the lack of glucose in the LPS of ATCC 17745. This sugar is only exceptionally absent (3) in LPS containing neutral sugars other than heptose.

We have, therefore, made new LPS preparations from the *Veillonella* type strains and the oral strains examined previously. These and preparations of LPS from 26 other oral strains of *Veillonella* have been examined for sugar components by paper chromatography of acid hydrolysates and colorimetry and, to some extent, by gas liquid chromatography.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Strains

The origin of the *Veillonella* strains Ve 5, Ve 6, Ve 8 and Ve 9 has been reported previously (8). The additional 26 oral strains (cf. Table 1) were isolated from the saliva of the same number of healthy human adults. The type strains ATCC 10790 (*V. parvula* ss. *parvula*), ATCC 17744 (*V. parvula* ss. *ariphae*), ATCC 17745 (*V. solanaceae* ss. *solanaceae*) and ATCC 17748 (*V. solanaceae* ss. *disparis*) were received from Dr. K. W. Knox, Institute of Dental Research, United Dental Hospital, Sydney, Australia.

Culture Conditions

Bulk cultivation was carried out as described earlier (8). The medium used was based on Tryptone and yeast extract and contained sodium lactate as energy source.

present in small amounts. Most LPS contained galactose and a few rhamnose. Some preparations contained trace amounts of ribose. If the LPS contained galactose, this sugar and in a few LPS also galactosamine, were predominantly present in the hydrolysates made with 0.1 N H₂SO₄. Galactosamine or glucose was detected in the 0.1 N H₂SO₄ hydrolysates of the LPS which contained no galactose. By GLC, the heptose was identified as L-phero-D-manno-heptose. In addition, LPS from one of the strains examined by GLC contained D-phero-D-manno-heptose. Ribose was also detected in some LPS by GLC, but the amount varied considerably from one preparation of LPS to another from the same strain.

Based on the results of the colorimetric and chromatographic examinations, the LPS from the 34 strains of *Yelloneilla* could be divided into four chemotypes (Table 1). Table 2 shows that the relative amounts of the different neutral sugars of the LPS examined by GLC varied from one LPS to another within the same chemotype.

DISCUSSION

Analogous to *Salmonella* and other genera within *Enterobacteriaceae*, *Yelloneilla citri* can be classified into chemotypes on the basis of the sugar composition of the cell wall lipopolysaccharide. The majority of the LPS examined fell into chemotype II characterized by the presence of galactose in addition to the common sugar constituents NDO, L-phero-D-manno-heptose, glucose, glucosamine and galactosamine. The same sugars have been found in LPS isolated from serotypes B and X of *Neisseria meningitidis* (11). The sugar pattern characteristic of chemotype III has been reported in *N. perflava* (2). The sugar components of *Yelloneilla* chemotype I LPS are probably present in *N. succin* (1, 10). *Gluco-manno-heptose*, glucose, galactose and glucosamine were found in LPS isolated from *N. gonorrhoeae* (15). Thus the *Yelloneilla* LPS have a sugar composition similar to that of the LPS of *Neisseria*.

LPS from strain Ve 8 classified here as chemotype IV LPS, may perhaps represent a mutant LPS analogous to that of the rfe-657 strains of *Salmonella typhimurium* (14). However, D-glucero-D-manno-heptose is a frequent constituent of LPS from *Proteus* (13, 19), *Yersinia* (5), and *Erwinia* (14).

The results indicate that glucose, L-phero-D-manno-heptose and NDO in *Yelloneilla* LPS constitute the polysaccharide core structure or its inner part. The release by mild acid hydrolysis of

galactose or galactosamine in serotype II LPS and of galactosamine or glucose in the other LPS chemotypes, suggests that these sugars are partly constituents of side chains. With respect to chemotype III LPS, which contains rhamnose, it is of relevance that Johnson *et al.* (12) have reported the presence in *Acetivaria* LPS of three different oligosaccharides, one of which includes this sugar.

Numerous LPS serotypes exist in *Yelloneilla* (16), also within the same chemotype (unpublished observations). This suggests a great variation in structural arrangement of the relatively few sugar components of the *Yelloneilla* LPS.

Previously we reported the presence of ribose in LPS from strain Ve 5 (8). In the present study variable amounts of ribose were found in the LPS-Ve 5 preparations examined, but ribose was not demonstrated in the supernatant fluid after mild acid degradation of the LPS (preliminary experiments). It is probable, therefore, that the occurrence of ribose in some of the LPS preparations was due to contamination with pectic acid. The observation of Hewitt *et al.* (6) that LPS isolated from ATCC 17745 lacked glucose was not substantiated by the present study.

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Isolation of LPS

Washed and acetone-dried whole cells were extracted with phenol-water (23) for 30 min at room temperature (8) and purified from the water phase by ultracentrifugation ($100\,000 \times g$ 60 min) and treatment with ribonuclease and deoxyribonuclease (7).

Paper Chromatography

Acid hydrolysis was performed in sealed tubes at 100°C with 3 N HCl for 3 h, with 6N HCl for 16 h, with 0.1 N H_2SO_4 for 10 min, and with N H_2SO_4 for 4 h. The samples were neutralized as described (8) and subjected to circular chromatography with *n*-butanol pyridine-water (6:4:3 by vol). Reducing sugars were detected with silver nitrate, aldoses with aniline hydrogen phthalate, and amino sugars with the Elson Morgan reagent (17) or ninhydrin.

Gas Liquid Chromatography (GLC)

Samples of LPS hydrolysed with 0.1 N HCl for 48 h at 100°C were neutralized with Amberlite IRA 410 HCO_3^- form, and the aldoses converted to alditol acetates, as described by Savardeler *et al* (18). GLC was carried out in a Perkin Elmer 900 Gas Chromato-

graph with a flame ionization detector on a glass column (0.2×180 cm) packed with 3 per cent ECNSS-M on Gas-Chrom Q 100-170 mesh. The flow of N_2 gas was 30 ml per min, and the column, injector and detector temperatures were 180°C or 190°C , 200 and 250°C , respectively. D-xylose was used as internal standard.

Colorimetric Determination of KDO

The thiobarbituric acid reaction (21) was used on samples of LPS hydrolysed with 0.02 N H_2SO_4 for 70 min at 100°C . The absorbance was estimated in a Unicam SP 800 Ultraviolet Spectrophotometer. A peak at 500-505 nm was recorded as a positive reaction.

RESULTS

All LPS gave a high and distinct peak at 500-505 nm in the thiobarbituric acid reaction for KDO. Paper chromatography of the different acid hydrolyses revealed the presence of heptose, glucose, glucosamine and galactosamine in LPS from all strains. In some LPS galactosamine seemed to be

TABLE 1 Chemotypes of *Veillonella* LPS

| Chemotype | Origin of LPS | GlcN | GalN | Glc | KDO | L Hep | D-Hep | Gal | Rha |
|-----------|--|------|------|-----|-----|-------|-------|-----|-----|
| I | ATCC 17745 ATCC 17748 Ve6 Ve9 Ve10 Ve40 | xx | xx | xx | xx | xx | | | |
| II | ATCC 10790 Ve5 Ve7 Ve11 Ve20 Ve22 Ve26 Ve30 Ve42 Ve46 Ve47 Ve48 Ve50 Ve51 Ve53 Ve54 Ve60 Ve61 Ve62, Ve63 Ve67 Ve68 Ve70 Ve328 | xx | xx | xx | xx | xx | | x | |
| III | ATCC 17744 Ve41 Ve49 | xx | xx | xx | xx | xx | | | x |
| IV | Ve8 | xx | xx | xx | xx | xx | x | x | |

GlcN = glucosamine, GalN = galactosamine, Glc = glucose, KDO = 2 keto-3-deoxy-octonate, L Hep = L-phospho-D-manno-heptose, D-Hep = D-glycero-D-manno-heptose, Gal = galactose, Rha = rhamnose

TABLE 2 Molar Ratio of Neutral Sugars Present in LPS of 14 Strains of *Veillonella*

| Chemotype | No of LPS | L Hep | D-Hep | Molar ratios of Glc | Gal | Rha |
|-----------|-----------|-------|-------|------------------------|---------|---------|
| I | 3 | 1 | | 1.5-4.1 | | |
| II | 7 | 1 | | 0.6-2.2 | 0.7-3.0 | |
| III | 2 | 1 | | 2.6-3.2 | | 0.7-0.9 |
| IV | 1 | 1 | 0.6 | 0.8 | 1.1 | |

present in small amounts. Most LPS contained galactose and a few rhamnose. Some preparations contained trace amounts of ribose. If the LPS contained galactose, this sugar and in a few LPS also galactosamine, were predominantly present in the hydrolysates made with 0.1 N H₂SO₄. Galactosamine or glucose was detected in the 0.1 N H₂SO₄ hydrolysates of the LPS which contained no galactose. By GLC, the heptose was identified as L-glycero-D-manno-heptose. In addition, LPS from one of the strains examined by GLC contained D-glycero-D-manno-heptose. Ribose was also detected in some LPS by GLC, but the amount varied considerably from one preparation of LPS to another from the same strain.

Based on the results of the colorimetric and chromatographic examinations, the LPS from the 14 strains of *Yersinia* could be divided into four chemotypes (Table 1). Table 2 shows that the relative amounts of the different neutral sugars of the LPS examined by GLC varied from one LPS to another within the same chemotype.

DISCUSSION

Analogous to *Salmonella* and other genera within *Enterobacteriaceae*, *Yersinia* can be classified into chemotypes on the basis of the sugar composition of the cell wall lipopolysaccharide. The majority of the LPS examined fell into chemotype II, characterized by the presence of galactose in addition to the common sugar constituents KDO, L-glycero-D-manno-heptose, glucose, glucosamine and galactosamine. The same sugars have been found in LPS isolated from serotypes B and X of *Neisseria meningitidis* (11). The sugar pattern characteristic of chemotype III has been reported in *N. perflava* (2). The sugar components of *Yersinia* chemotype I LPS are probably present in *N. succa* (1, 10). Glcero-manno-heptose, glucose, galactose and glucosamine were found in LPS isolated from *N. enterocolitica* (15). Thus the *Yersinia* LPS have a sugar composition similar to that of the LPS of *Enterobacteriaceae*.

LPS from strain Ve 8 classified here as chemotype IV LPS may perhaps represent a mutant LPS analogous to that of the rfa-657 strains of *Salmonella typhimurium* (14). However D-glycero-D-manno-heptose is a frequent constituent of LPS from *Proteus* (13, 19), *Yersinia* (5), and *Enterobacterium* (4).

The results indicate that glucose, L-glycero-D-manno-heptose and KDO in *Yersinia* LPS constitute the polysaccharide core structure or its next part. The release by mild acid hydrolysis of

galactose or galactosamine in chemotype II LPS, and of galactosamine or glucose in the other LPS chemotypes, suggests that these sugars are partly constituents of side chains. With respect to chemotype III LPS, which contains rhamnose, it is of relevance that Johnson *et al.* (12) have reported the presence in *Neisseria* LPS of three different oligosaccharides, one of which includes this sugar.

Numerous LPS serotypes exist in *Yersinia* (16), also within the same chemotype (Hofstad, unpublished observations). This suggests a great variation in structural arrangement of the relatively few sugar components of the *Yersinia* LPS.

Previously we reported the presence of ribose in LPS from strain Ve 5 (8). In the present study variable amounts of ribose were found in the LPS-Ve 5 preparations examined, but ribose was not demonstrated in the supernatant fluid after mild acid degradation of the LPS (preliminary experiments). It is probable, therefore, that the occurrence of ribose in some of the LPS preparations was due to contamination with nucleic acid. The observation of Hewett *et al.* (6) that LPS isolated from ATCC 17745 lacked glucose was not substantiated by the present study.

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Isolation of LPS

Washed and acetone-dried whole cells were extracted with phenol water (13) for 30 min at room temperature (8) and purified from the water phase by ultracentrifugation (100 000 \times g 60 min) and treatment with ribonuclease and deoxyribonuclease (7).

Paper Chromatography

Acid hydrolysis was performed in sealed tubes at 100° C with 3 N HCl for 3 h, with 6 N HCl for 16 h, with 0.1 N H₂SO₄ for 10 min, and with N H₂SO₄ for 4 h. The samples were neutralized as described (8) and subjected to circular chromatography with *n*-butanol:pyridine:water (6:4:3 by vol.). Reducing sugars were detected with silver nitrate, aldoses with aniline hydrogen phthalate, and amino sugars with the Elson-Morgan reagent (17) or ninhydrin.

Gas Liquid Chromatography (GLC)

Samples of LPS hydrolysed with 0.1 N HCl for 48 h at 100° C were neutralized with Amberlite IRA 410 HCO₃⁻ form and the aldoses converted to alditol acetates, as described by Savardker *et al.* (18). GLC was carried out in a Perkin-Elmer 900 Gas Chromato-

graph with a flame ionization detector on a glass column (0.2 \times 180 cm) packed with 3 per cent ECSS-M on Gas-Chrom Q 100-120 mesh. The flow of N₂ gas was 30 ml per min, and the column, injector and detector temperatures were 180° C or 190° C, 200 and 250° C respectively. D-xylose was used as internal standard.

Colorimetric Determination of KDO

The thiobarbituric acid reaction (22) was used on samples of LPS hydrolysed with 0.02 N H₂SO₄ for 2 min at 100° C. The absorbance was examined on Unicam SP 800 Ultraviolet Spectrophotometer. A peak at 500-505 nm was recorded as a positive reaction.

RESULTS

All LPS gave a high and distinct peak at 500-505 nm in the thiobarbituric acid reaction for KDO. Paper chromatography of the different acid hydrolysates revealed the presence of heptose, glucose, glucosamine and galactosamine in LPS from strains. In some LPS galactosamine seemed to be

TABLE 1. Chemotypes of *Yersinia* LPS

| Chemotype | Origin of LPS | GlcN | GalN | Glc | KDO | L-Hep | D-Hep | Gal | Rha |
|-----------|---|------|------|-----|-----|-------|-------|-----|-----|
| I | ATCC 17745 ATCC 17748 Ve6 Ve9 Ve10 Ve40 | xx | xx | xx | xx | xx | | | |
| II | ATCC 10790 Ve5 Ve7 Ve11 Ve20 Ve22 Ve26 Ve30 Ve42 Ve46 Ve47 Ve48 Ve50 Ve51 Ve53 Ve54 Ve60 Ve61 Ve62 Ve63 Ve67 Ve68 Ve70 Ve328 | | | | | | | | |
| III | ATCC 17744 Ve41 Ve49 | xx | xx | xx | xx | xx | | | x |
| IV | Ve8 | xx | xx | xx | xx | xx | x | x | |

GlcN = glucosamine, GalN = galactosamine, Glc = glucose, KDO = 2-keto-3-deoxy-octonate, L-Hep = L-glycero-D-manno-heptose, D-Hep = D-glycero-D-manno-heptose, Gal = galactose, Rha = rhamnose.

TABLE 2. Molar Ratio of Neutral Sugars Present in LPS of 14 Strains of *Yersinia*

| Chemotype | No of LPS | L-Hep | D-Hep | Molar ratios of Glc | Gal | Rha |
|-----------|-----------|-------|-------|---------------------|---------|---------|
| I | 3 | 1 | | 1.5-4.1 | | |
| II | 7 | 1 | | 0.6-2.2 | 0.7-3.0 | |
| III | 2 | 1 | | 2.6-3.2 | | 0.7-0.9 |
| IV | 1 | 1 | 0.6 | 0.8 | 1.1 | |

Legend: see Table 1

present in small amounts. Most LPS contained galactose and a few rhamnose. Some preparations contained trace amounts of ribose. If the LPS contained galactose, this sugar and in a few LPS also galactosamine, were predominantly present in the hydrolysates made with 0.1 N H₂SO₄. Galactosamine or glucose was detected in the 0.1 N H₂SO₄ hydrolysates of the LPS which contained no galactose. By GLC, the heptose was identified as L-glycero-D-manno-heptose. In addition, LPS from one of the strains examined by GLC contained D-glycero-D-manno-heptose. Ribose was also detected in some LPS by GLC but the amount varied considerably from one preparation of LPS to another from the same strain.

Based on the results of the colorimetric and chromatographic examinations, the LPS from the 34 strains of *Yellownella* could be divided into four chemotypes (Table 1). Table 2 shows that the relative amounts of the different neutral sugars of the LPS examined by GLC varied from one LPS to another within the same chemotype.

DISCUSSION

Analogous to *Salmonella* and other genera within *Enterobacteriaceae*, *Yellownella* can be classified into chemotypes on the basis of the sugar composition of the cell wall lipopolysaccharide. The majority of the LPS examined fell into chemotype II characterized by the presence of galactose in addition to the common sugar constituents KDO, L-glycero-D-manno-heptose, glucose, glucosamine and galactosamine. The same sugars have been found in LPS isolated from serotypes B and Y of *Neisseria meningitidis* (11). The sugar pattern characteristic of chemotype III has been reported in *N. perflava* (2). The sugar components of *Yellownella* chemotype I LPS are probably present in *N. sicca* (1, 10). *Glycero-manno-heptose*, glucose, galactose and glucosamine were found in LPS isolated from *N. gonorrhoeae* (15). Thus the *Yellownella* LPS have a sugar composition similar to that of the LPS of *Neisseriaceae*.

LPS from strain Ve 8 classified here as chemotype IV LPS may perhaps represent a mutant LPS analogous to that of the rfa-657 strains of *Salmonella typhimurium* (14). However, D-glycero-D-manno-heptose is a frequent constituent of LPS from *Proteus* (13, 19), *Yersinia* (5), and *Pseudomonas* (4).

The results indicate that glucose, L-glycero-D-manno-heptose and KDO in *Yellownella* LPS constitute the polysaccharide core structure or its inner part. The release by mild acid hydrolysis of

galactose or galactosamine in chemotype II LPS and of galactosamine or glucose in the other LPS chemotypes, suggests that these sugars are partly constituents of side chains. With respect to chemotype III LPS, which contains rhamnose, it is of relevance that *Selwyn et al.* (12) have reported the presence in *Neisseria* LPS of three different oligosaccharides, one of which includes this sugar.

Numerous LPS serotypes exist in *Yellownella* (16), also within the same chemotype (*Hafslund unpublished observations*). This suggests a great variation in structural arrangement of the relatively few sugar components of the *Yellownella* LPS.

Previously we reported the presence of ribose in LPS from strain Ve 5 (8). In the present study variable amounts of ribose were found in the LPS-Ve 5 preparations examined, but ribose was not demonstrated in the supernatant fluid after mild acid degradation of the LPS (preliminary experiments). It is probable, therefore, that the occurrence of ribose in some of the LPS preparations was due to contamination with nucleic acid. The observation of *Hevert et al.* (6) that LPS isolated from ATCC 17745 lacked glucose was not substantiated by the present study.

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BRIEF REPORT

BOVINE PROTOTHECOSIS

A brief report of ten cases

Jessie Bodeshøff and P. Schmidt Mathsen

Mycological Department, Statens Serum Institut, Copenhagen, and Statens Veterinære Serumlaboratorium, Rungsted, Denmark

Bodeshøff, J. & Mathsen, P. Schmidt. Bovine protothecosis. A brief report of ten cases. Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B 86 51-52, 1978.

Prototheca zopfii was isolated repeatedly from milk samples from ten cows (of a herd of 192 dairy cows) with reduced milk yield and indurated mammary glands. The strains were moderately sensitive to streptomycin, polymyxin and gentamicin, but resistant or relatively resistant to other antibiotics and antimycotics commonly used in clinical practice.

An attempt to treat the infection with Ethaderm bromide, which was found effective in vitro, did not succeed. The number of *Prototheca* excreted decreased, but a complete cure was not obtained. In histological sections of the udder *Prototheca* cells were demonstrated both intracellularly and extracellularly.

Key words. *Prototheca zopfii* protothecosis, bovine, mastitis, bovine.

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During routine examination of 192 dairy cows from one farm, microorganisms were isolated from milk samples from ten cows. At first the organisms were isolated to be atypical yeast cells, but a closer study revealed that they actually belonged to genus *Prototheca*.

Prototheca - first described by Kræger in 1894 - is a group of non-pigmented unicellular microorganisms belonging to the colorless algae.

Whereas numerous microorganisms among bacteria, fungi, protozoa, spirochaetes and viruses are well-known pathogens, algae are usually not associated with disease. Out in the last 20-25 years have they been mentioned as all in the medical literature, and then only rarely.

Geographically *Prototheca* has been demonstrated in localities as far apart as Argentine, Germany, Puerto Rico, Sierra Leone, USA and Denmark.

Prototheca has been isolated from various sources such as shrimp fins of trout, lake and sea water, sea urchin, sludge from skin scrapings and tissues from humans and animals and from human sputum and faeces.

Protothecosis, the infection which may be produced by certain *Prototheca* species, was first described as a cow by Leriche in 1952. Leriche showed experimentally that

the *Prototheca* strains concerned could give rise to mastitis, but histopathological studies were not performed.

Available evidence strongly suggests that the skin is the primary site of infection in both man and animals. The exact mechanism of infection is not known.

The most common form of protothecosis in man and animals seems to be the cutaneous variety which occurs either as a demarcated local skin lesion or as a generalized disease. Cutaneous manifestations were, in fact, described by Danvers *et al.* who in 1964 were the first to prove that *Prototheca* can be pathogenic for man. They isolated a *Prototheca* strain from skin affection in an African cow farmer and also demonstrated its presence in the tissues.

Present material

During examination of a herd of 192 dairy cows, *Prototheca* was isolated repeatedly at weekly intervals from milk samples from ten of the cows. Clinically the cows were in good condition, though the affected quarters were indurated and the milk yield reduced.

For epidemiological reasons, it was attempted to trace the source of infection by inoculations from the milker

the fodder and the environment (including water holes and maripits on the farm) but without result.

The actual strain grew well aerobically at 30–32°C on conventional culture media. In young cultures the colonies resembled colonies of yeast, but in older cultures on blood agar they were duller and drier. On Sabouraud agar they were finely subglobose opalescent and transparent. The smell of the cultures on Sabouraud agar was unpleasant.

Prototheca cells are Gram-positive and catalase positive. In physiological studies of the isolated *Prototheca* strain by the method of Lodder 1970 no carbohydrates were fermented, but the strain assimilated glucose, glycine, ethanol, n-propanol and lactate. Using Arnold and Ahearn's identification key (Arnold & Ahearn 1972) the strain in question was identified as *Prototheca zopfii*. Comparisons with type strains from the American Type Culture Collection have verified the diagnosis.

The cases of protothecosis reported in the literature were difficult to treat because of the relative resistance of *Prototheca* to the drugs usually applied against infections.

This observation is in good agreement with the results of sensitivity tests performed on the *Prototheca zopfii* strain under consideration here. The strain was moderately sensitive to streptomycin, polymyxin and gentamicin, but resistant or relatively resistant to other antibiotics and antimycotics commonly used in clinical practice.

As the antibiotic therapy applied to the affected cow proved ineffective, one of us (S.M.) thought that Ethidium bromide might prove effective in the treatment of the algal infection. Ethidium bromide – a phenanthridine derivative which can form a complex compound with DNA in cell nuclei – is used under the proprietary name of Homidium® in the treatment of trypanosome diseases in the tropics.

In serial dilutions on Sabouraud agar plates, the minimum inhibition concentration of Ethidium bromide was found to be 5 µg/ml.

However mastitis was still present, even though treatment with Ethidium bromide of both the affected animals and an experimentally infected cow resulted in a fall in the excretion of *Prototheca* cells.

The experimentally infected and Ethidium bromide treated cow was killed and subjected to autopsy. *Prototheca* cells were demonstrated both intracellularly and interstitially in histological sections of the udder tissue.

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THE ROLE OF CELL WALL CARBOHYDRATES IN BINDING OF MICROORGANISMS TO MOUSE PERITONEAL EXUDATE MACROPHAGES

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The recognition by macrophages of nonphagocytosed bacteria was studied, employing a 'binding assay' performed at 4° C. Various Gram positive and Gram negative bacteria were shown to bind to glass-adherent mouse peritoneal exudate cells under these conditions. *St. paratyphi* being the only exception. The binding could be inhibited by pretreatment of the macrophage monolayers with various monosaccharides. The role of particular components of the bacterial cell wall in binding was examined further using different strains of *K. aerogenes* and *S. typhimurium* with a known cell wall composition and mutant strains deficient in certain regions. The ability of a particular constituent to inhibit binding was found to correlate closely with its presence in the bacterial cell wall. It is concluded, that this form of binding, mediated by cell wall carbohydrates represents a primitive recognition mechanism enabling phagocytes to bind microorganisms.

Key words: Macrophages, recognition, bacterial cell wall carbohydrates, *Salmonella*-microbial pathogenicity.

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The ability of phagocytes to adhere to various surfaces, to microorganisms and other particulate material in the absence of antibody or complement is a well known phenomenon (see Srossel 1975). The mechanisms underlying cell surface interactions of this type are poorly understood and in a previous report we showed the importance of carbohydrate constituents of the cell wall of the anaerobic corynebacteria *Corynebacterium jeikeium* in

binding to mouse peritoneal exudate macrophages (Ögmundsdóttir & Weir 1976). The plasma membrane receptors for the cell wall carbohydrates appear to be glycoprotein in nature and the binding is dependent on divalent cations (Ögmundsdóttir *et al.* 1977).

Macrophage recognition abilities are of considerable potential importance in the understanding of immune mechanisms in infective disease and macrophage target cell interaction with altered tissue cells. In this report we have studied the role of cell wall carbohydrates of a variety of Gram +ve and -ve microorganisms in binding to mouse macrophages using mainly organisms with defined cell wall composition.

TABLE 2 Binding Inhibition - *Klebsiella aerogenes* Type 2

| <i>K. aerogenes</i> ($1-2 \times 10^{10}$ /ml) | Percent binding (S.E.) | Inhibitory Sugars | | | | |
|--|---------------------------|-------------------|---------|---------|-------------|-----------|
| | | Galactose | Glucose | Mannose | Glucosamine | Arabinose |
| Wild type 5055 | 18.1 (0.6) | - | + | - | - | - |
| Non-encapsulated Mutant M12 | 19.0 (0.6) | + | + | - | + | - |
| Core Mutant M10B | 19.1 (0.5) | - | + | - | + | - |

organisms can readily be scored. The concentration of organisms required to achieve this binding level was usually between 10^8 and 10^{10} organisms/ml (see Table 1). In control experiments the formalin killing procedure was shown to have no effect on the binding ability of the organisms. *Str. pneumoniae* was the only organism tried that did not bind to the PEAs.

Inhibition of Binding by Monosaccharides and other Bacterial Wall Constituents

Using the working concentration of organisms, binding inhibition assays were performed with two commonly occurring cell wall sugars glucose and galactose. A sugar was regarded as inhibitory if it reduced binding to 60% of control values without inhibitor. Table 1 shows that glucose at a concentra-

TABLE 3 Percent Binding of *S. typhimurium* Strains to Mouse PEMs and the Ability of Various Sugars and Cell Wall Constituents to Inhibit Binding. The Structure of the LPS of *S. typhimurium*, Wild Type and Mutants, is Shown in the Schematic Formula

| O SOMATIC REPEAT UNIT | | OUTER CORE | | INNER CORE |
|--|---------|--|--|--|
| $\left[\begin{array}{ccc} \text{O Acetyl} & \text{Ara} & \text{Glc} \\ & & \\ & 1 & 1 \\ & & \\ & \text{Man} & \text{Gal} & \text{Gal} \end{array} \right]$ | | $\begin{array}{c} \text{GlcNAc} \\ \\ \text{Glc II} \quad \text{Gal I} \\ \quad \quad \\ \text{rhaK} \quad \text{rha} \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{c} \text{Gal II} \\ \\ \text{Glc I} \quad \text{Hep II} \quad \text{Hep I} \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{c} \text{KDO} \\ \\ \text{Lipid A} \\ \\ \text{Klebsiellanic acid} \end{array}$ |
| Genotype | | | | |
| Chemotype | smooth | $\frac{\text{rhaK}}{\text{rha}}$ | $\frac{\text{rha}}{\text{rha}}$ | $\frac{\text{rhaK}}{\text{rha}}$ |
| STRAIN | SL 1042 | SL 1004 | SL 1006 | SL 1103 |
| INHIBITION BY | | | | |
| GLUCOSE | | | | |
| GALACTOSE | | | | |
| GLUCOSAMINE | | | | |
| RHAMNOSSE | | | | |
| MANNOSSE | | | | |
| KDO | ND | ND | ND | |
| LIPID A | | | | |
| ARABINOSSE | | | | |

inhibition, - no inhibition (see text)

Abbreviations: Glc = glucose, Gal = galactose, Ara = arabinose, GlcNAc = N-acetyl glucosamine, Man = mannose, Rha = rhamnose, Hep = L-glycero-D-mannoheptose, KDO = 2-keto-3-deoxyoctonate, ND = not done. Concentration of organisms $1-8 \times 10^9$ /ml.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animals. C3H mice (SPF) age 5 to 10 weeks were from the departmental breeding colony.

Organisms. *Staphylococcus albus*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Streptococcus viridans*, *Streptococcus pyogenes*, *Escherichia coli* and *Bacillus anthracoides* were obtained from the departmental teaching collection. *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* NCTC 578 both mucoid and non-mucoid strains, were kindly provided by Dr John Govan. *Klebsiella aerogenes* serotype 2, NCTC 5055 a non-encapsulated mutant M2 and a rough mutant M10B as well as *Salmonella typhimurium* SL 1542 with a complete lipopolysaccharide (LPS) and rough mutants having incomplete LPS SL 1096 (*rfaK* chemotype Rb), SL 1099 (chemotype Rc) and SL 1102 (*rfaE* chemotype Rb) were from the strain collection of Dr Ian Sutherland. The organisms were grown in horse digest broth or nutrient broth harvested in log phase and killed by 24 h exposure to 0.5% formalin at 4°C. When living organisms were used they were stored at 4°C in 0.9% saline. Counting was performed in a Neubauer chamber 0.01 mm depth.

Collection of peritoneal exudate cells (PE cells). 2.5 ml of Dulbecco's phosphate buffered saline (PBS) containing 10 IU/ml heparin, were injected i.p. into C3H mice and after light massage withdrawn by means of a syringe. The cell suspension, kept on ice, was centrifuged at 4°C at 250 × g for 7 minutes and, after removal of the supernatant, resuspended in Eagle's medium MEM (Wellcome Research Laboratories, Beckenham, England) without serum to give a final cell count of 2 to 4 × 10⁶ ml.

Preparation of monolayers. Suspensions of PE cells were layered by pasteur pipette on to 7 × 20 mm 'flying' glass coverslips in 12 × 7.4 cm glass tubes (WR robust). Tubes were incubated at 37°C for 2 h and non-adherent cells removed by repeated washing with Dulbecco's PBS. Each coverslip then contained approximately 2 × 10⁵ peritoneal exudate macrophages (PEMs).

Binding assay. Coverslips with adherent PE cells were layered with a suspension of the appropriate organism at the concentrations shown in the tables in Dulbecco's PBS containing Ca⁺⁺ and Mg⁺⁺ ions (Dulbecco's PBS + B) and incubated for 2 hours at 4°C. Non-attached organisms were washed away with Dulbecco's PBS and the coverslips air dried, heat fixed, and stained by the Gram method. Microscopic examination of the monolayers was performed and PEMs with two or more attached organisms were counted. A total of 700 cells were counted on each slide, and the results expressed as the percentage of cells binding organisms.

Inhibition studies. PEM cell monolayers were overlaid with solutions of various carbohydrates (hexoses, glucosamine, arabinose and 2 keto-3-deoxyoctonate (KDO), Sigma) and lipid A in Dulbecco's PBS + B. Lipid A was prepared from freeze dried *K. aerogenes* by phenol extraction (Pastern & Sutherland 1976). The concentration of inhibitors used was 10 mM as preliminary experiments had shown that this was the minimum inhibitory concentration for glucose and galactose. After fifteen minutes exposure to these materials at 4°C the monolayers were gently washed and the binding assay performed as described above. Bacterial concentrations for the inhibition study were those for which 15–30% binding had been observed in binding assays.

RESULTS

Binding of Various Gram Positive and Gram Negative Bacteria to PEMs

Binding assays were performed as described in Materials and Methods with a variety of Gram +ve and Gram -ve organisms. A working concentration of organisms was first determined that gave between 20 and 30% binding. At this level of binding the PE cell monolayers with attached

TABLE 1. Percent Binding of Organisms to Mouse PE Cell Monolayers and Inhibition by Glucose or Galactose

| Organism | Numbers/ml | Percent binding | S.E. | Inhibitory sugars | |
|-----------------------------------|------------------------|-----------------|------|-------------------|-----------|
| | | | | Glucose | Galactose |
| <i>St. viridans</i> | 5 × 10 ⁹ | 33.7 | 1.0 | + | — |
| <i>St. pyogenes</i> | 5 × 10 ¹⁰ | 19.5 | 0.8 | + | — |
| <i>St. pneumoniae</i> | up to 10 ¹¹ | 0 | | — | — |
| <i>B. anthracoides</i> | 3 × 10 ⁹ | 23.0 | 0.8 | — | — |
| <i>St. albus</i> | 7 × 10 ⁹ | 21.1 | 1.0 | + | + |
| <i>St. aureus</i> | 2 × 10 ⁹ | 19.5 | 0.9 | + | + |
| <i>E. coli</i> | 7 × 10 ⁸ | 21.0 | 1.0 | + | + |
| <i>P. aeruginosa</i> (mucoid) | 2 × 10 ¹⁰ | 19.9 | 1.0 | + | + |
| <i>P. aeruginosa</i> (non-mucoid) | 1 × 10 ¹⁰ | 20.9 | 1.0 | + | + |
| <i>C. parvum</i> (10390) | 3 × 10 ¹⁰ | 28.9 | 1.9 | + | + |

TABLE 2. *Binding Inhibitors - Klebsiella aerogenes* Type 2

| K serotypes ($1-2 \times 10^{10}/ml$) | Percent binding (S.E.) | Inhibitory Sugars | | | | |
|--|---------------------------|-------------------|--------|---------|-------------|-----------|
| | | Galactose | Glcose | Mannose | Gluconamine | Arabinose |
| Wild type 5055 | 18.1 (0.6) | - | + | - | - | - |
| Non-excreted Mutant M2 | 19.0 (0.6) | + | + | - | + | - |
| Core Mutant M10B | 19.1 (0.5) | - | + | - | + | - |

organisms can readily be scored. The concentration of organisms required to achieve this binding level was usually between 10^4 and 10^6 organisms/ml (see Table 1). In control experiments the formalin killing procedure was shown to have no effect on the binding ability of the organisms. *Sir* *proteomac* was the only organism tried that did not bind to the PEAs.

Inhibition of Binding by Homosaccharides and other Bacterial Wall Constituents

Using the working concentration of organisms, binding inhibition assays were performed with two commonly occurring cell wall sugars glucose and galactose. A sugar was regarded as inhibitory if it reduced binding to 60% of control values without inhibitor. Table 1 shows that glucose at a concen-

TABLE 3 Percent Binding of β typhlosarcoma Strains to Mouse PELs and the Ability of Various Sugars and Cell Wall Constituents to Inhibit Binding. The Structures of the LPS of β typhlosarcomas, Wild Type and Mutants, is Shown in the Schematic Formula

| | O SOMATIC REPEAT UNIT | OUTER CORE | INNER CORE |
|----------------|--------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| Genotype | | | |
| Chemotype | smooth | $\frac{rfaK}{Hb}$ | $\frac{rfaE}{Hb}$ |
| STRAIN | SL 1043 | SL 1004 | SL 1000 |
| ORIENTATION BY | | | SL 1191 |
| GLUCOSE | | | |
| GALACTOSE | | | |
| GLUCOSAMINE | | | |
| PHOSPHATE | | | |
| MANNOSE | | | |
| KDO | ND | ND | ND |
| LIPID A | | | |
| ARABINOSIDE | | | |

+ inhibition, - no inhibition (see text)

Abbreviations: Glc = glucose, Gal = galactose, Abs = absorbance, GlcNac = N-acetyl glucosamine, Nac = mannose, Rha = rhamnose, Hep = L-glycero-D-mannopentose, KDO = 2-keto-3-deoxyoctonate, ND = not done.
Concentration of organism $1-8 \times 10^9$ /ml

tion of 10mM was capable of inhibiting binding of all organisms except *B. anthracoides* in contrast galactose was ineffective with this and two additional organisms *Sir viridans* and *Sir pyogenes*.

Similar binding inhibition assays were then performed with organisms of known cell wall constitution and with mutant strains with deficiencies of various sugars. Tables 2 and 3 show the results with 3 *K. aerogenes* and 4 *S. typhimurium* strains. The two *Klebsiella* mutants lacked capsule polysaccharides and M10B also had a defective lipopolysaccharide (LPS) core. Strain M10B contains only 0.2% (as % dry weight LPS) of galactose compared to between 20 and 30% in the wild type and mutant M2 (Paxton & Sutherland 1976). Table 2 shows that galactose has no inhibitory effect on the binding of the galactose deficient strain. Glucose which is present in a concentration of between 5 and 7% in all the strains is inhibitory with each of the organisms including the capsulated wild type. The bacterial cell wall also contains glucosamine which was inhibitory with the non-capsulated strain. Heptose and KDO are also present. The capsule contains both glucose and mannose but no galactose and mannose does not inhibit binding of any of the strains.

Table 3 shows the results of the inhibition assays with wild type *S. typhimurium* (SL 1542) and three mutants with deficiencies of sugars in the O repeat unit and outer and inner core, as indicated in the table. The ability of sugars to inhibit binding of a particular mutant is directly related to the presence of the sugar with the exception of rhamnose and mannose. The rough mutant SL 1102 appears to bind by means of its KDO and lipid A components. Lipid A is a glycolipid containing substituted galactose. The degree of inhibition is usually down to 40-60% of controls, but lipid A reduces the binding of SL 1102 to 12-15%.

DISCUSSION

The results indicate that microorganisms bind to adherent mouse PE cells by means of cell wall and capsular sugars. The binding sites on the plasma membrane of the PE cells appear to have specificity for a variety of cell wall sugars in that a mutant strain of *K. aerogenes* lacking in a cell wall sugar known to be involved in binding (galactose) still binds, presumably by means of its cell wall glucose component. The presence of a binding site for galactose is indicated by the ability of this sugar to partially inhibit the degree of binding of the *K. aerogenes* mutant known to contain galactose as a cell wall component (Table 2). The importance of these two sugars in the binding of a variety of Gram

+ve and Gram-ve organisms is indicated in Table 1.

The structure of the lipopolysaccharides of *Klebsiella (Enterobacter) aerogenes* is by no means as well defined as that of *Salmonella* species. The presence of large amounts of nonacetylated galactose in the wild type and non-capsulated mutant (Paxton & Sutherland 1976) suggests that the O antigen is type 1 (Björnsdal et al 1971). (The Lipid A of some strains resembles that of *Salmonella* and justified its use for inhibiting the SL 1102 *Salmonella* mutant as no *Salmonella* Lipid A was available).

With the *S. typhimurium* strains the schematic formula of which is shown in Table 3 the ability of sugars to inhibit binding is directly related to their presence in the O somatic repeat unit or the outer core. Mutants with missing sugars are not inhibited by those sugars. Mutant SL 1102 with only inner core components appears to bind by means of KDO and lipid A. The ability of lipid A to inhibit the binding of the other strains as well as SL 1102 can possibly be explained by its galactose content. The only anomaly is the inhibition by rhamnose of SL 1096 that should not express the sugar. This may be explained by the possibility that this mutant is "leaky" and synthesizing and expressing very small amounts of the wild type polysaccharide (Lehmann et al 1973).

The inability of mannose to inhibit binding of *K. aerogenes* and the wild type *Salmonella* strain is noteworthy and a similar result was found in our earlier studies with *C. parvum* (Ögmundsdóttir & Weir 1976). It is known that in the O repeat unit of the wild type *Salmonella* (SL 1542) the mannose is linked at a branch point to abequose and in *Klebsiella* wild type capsules mannose is linked in the same way to glucuronic acid. The interaction with these sugars which are linked via hydrophilic and hydrophobic groups respectively may interfere with the expression of mannose as a potential binding sugar.

These results extend our earlier observations on *C. parvum* binding to mouse PE cells in which the importance of cell wall sugars in binding was clearly demonstrated (Ögmundsdóttir & Weir 1976). Work on the nature of the binding sites themselves indicates that they may be glycoprotein in nature (involving hydroxyl groups) in view of their susceptibility to proteolytic enzymes, β -galactosidase and periodate (Ögmundsdóttir et al 1977). The requirement for Ca⁺⁺ and Mg⁺⁺ in binding has also been noted and appears also to be a requirement for the binding of unopsonized albumin coated oil particles to phagocytes and for the binding of lymphocytes to macrophages (Stossel 1975 Rosenthal et al 1975).

In our view the binding of microorganisms to mouse PE cells, involving carbohydrates of the microbial cell wall and glycoprotein receptor sites on the macrophage plasma membrane, represents a primitive recognition mechanism enabling phagocytes to bind microorganisms prior to engulfment. It is likely that some organisms owe their pathogenicity to their ability to reduce the strength of binding by the presence of capsules that cover over sugars in the cell wall that would otherwise be involved in binding (and lead to phagocytosis). Other organisms may by releasing capsular material, block the phagocyte binding sites and thus allow the organism to escape the attention of the phagocytic cell. The capsular polysaccharide of *Corynebacterium jeikeium* can be shown to inhibit the binding of this yeast to the phagocyte. Encapsulated organisms attached at low rates and were engulfed more slowly than non-encapsulated yeasts (Kozel & Mastromarino 1976). In our studies the presence of a capsule did not appear to alter the degree of binding with the *Klebsiella* strains although the presence of the capsule did prevent galactose in the cell wall from attaching to the galactose binding site. We have not studied the stages that occur after initial binding and cannot therefore comment on the effects on virulence of the organism.

In other situations where virulence depends on the ability of microorganisms to attach to and penetrate gut epithelium, as is the case with *Salmonella* strains, then binding is a requirement for pathogenicity. *S. typhimurium* appears to adhere to the tooth surface by means of carbohydrates (glucans) attached via a (glycosyl) transferase to a surface polysaccharide containing galactose and glucose (Gibbons & van Haeften 1971). It seems possible that the more sugars involved the greater the chance of attachment to, penetration and invasion of, host cells (particularly those cells with fewer binding sites). Table 1 confirms this suggestion in that the smooth virulent strain of *S. typhimurium* (SL 1542) binds to the phagocytic cells (and therefore presumably to other cells) by more sugars than any of the less virulent mutants. Although *S. typhimurium* wild type (LT2) appears to be initially more slowly phagocytosed than rough strains (Makino & Sato 1968), phagocytosis and digestion is not a necessary sequel to binding (see Smith 1977). We suggest that the binding phenomenon described may have been the forerunner of the more effective binding mechanisms that involve cell bound opsonins and complement factors and would perhaps have provided a degree of protection from at least some potentially pathogenic microorganisms. Whether or not binding interaction by macrophages such as we have described extends to other forms of macro-

phage adherence remains to be elucidated. It is conceivable that interaction of this type may be responsible for macrophage recognition and attachment to a variety of carbohydrate containing surfaces such as transformed or altered tissue cells and carbohydrate antigenic determinants (Weir & Oomscholder 1977).

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tion of 10 mM was capable of inhibiting binding of all organisms except *B. anthracoides*. In contrast galactose was ineffective with this and two additional organisms *Str. viridans* and *Str. pyogenes*.

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MICROCALORIMETRIC STUDY OF THE EFFECTS OF CEPHALEXIN AND CEPHALORIDIN ON *ESCHERICHIA COLI* AND *STAPHYLOCOCCUS AUREUS*

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Arhammer M, Mårdh P A, Rupa T & Andersson K E. Microcalorimetric study of the effects of
cephalexin and cephaloridin on *Escherichia coli* and *Staphylococcus aureus*. Acta path. microbiol. scand.
Sect. B, 86 59-65 1978.

The kinetics of the antibacterial actions of cephalexin and cephaloridin against a strain of *Escherichia coli* and a strain of *Staphylococcus aureus* were studied by a flow microcalorimeter. The heat production was related to the number of viable organisms (CFU ml⁻¹), the pH, the optical density of the culture medium (OD₅₄₀), and the morphology of the antibiotic-exposed bacteria. No heat effects could be registered when the number of CFU was below 10⁴ ml⁻¹. The addition of cephalexin, 2.5 µg ml⁻¹ (5 × MIC), to cultures of *S. aureus* caused a decrease in the heat production which was only roughly correlated with the number of CFU ml⁻¹. This was also the case when 9.0 µg ml⁻¹ (2 × MIC) of this drug were added to cultures of *E. coli*. Two to three hours after the drugs had been added, no heat effects could be registered for the following 6-8 hours, after which an increase in the heat production again occurred. The MIC and MBC of the organisms exposed during this late heat increase were 8-40 times higher than those of the parent test organisms. A direct relation between drug concentration and response, i.e. heat effects produced, was found when increasing concentrations of cephalexin, i.e. 1.0 up to 50 µg ml⁻¹ (2-100 × MIC) were added in the logarithmic growth phase to cultures of *S. aureus*. In separate calorimetric experiments, *E. coli* was cultured in a non-aerated, sealed growth vessel in the presence of cephalexin or cephaloridin in concentrations corresponding to ½ × MIC. The thermograms did not differ in shape, although the heat effects occurred somewhat later in the culture containing cephaloridin.

Key words: *Escherichia coli*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, microcalorimetry, cephalexin, cephaloridin.

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The heat evolved by growing microorganisms can be registered by calorimetry. This technique can provide information regarding microbial growth in ecological systems such as water (10) and soil (2). Furthermore, calorimetry can be used for evaluation of optimal growth conditions in artificial culture systems (8).

We have recently used calorimetry as an approach for the study of the kinetics of the antibacterial action of antibiotics (3). By this

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MICROCALORIMETRIC STUDY OF THE EFFECTS OF CEPHALEXIN AND CEPHALORIDIN ON *ESCHERICHIA COLI* AND *STAPHYLOCOCCUS AUREUS*

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Key words: *Escherichia coli*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, microcalorimetry, cephalexin, cephaloridin.

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when the drugs were added in a certain range of concentrations, the effects on the heat production were less than when concentrations above or below that range were used (5).

In the present investigation the kinetics of the action of cephalaxin and cephaloridin on *E. coli* and *S. aureus* were studied by means of ampoule and flow calorimetry. The effects on heat production were related to the influence on viable counts, pH and optical density of the medium.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Test Organisms and Culture Conditions

A strain of *E. coli* (O 119 H:19) and an Oxford strain (493) of *S. aureus* were tested. The bacteria used in the experiments had been stored and treated before use as described previously (6).

In the flow calorimetric studies, the bacteria were inoculated into Trypticase soy broth (TSB) (Oxoid), pH 7.0-7.1 and incubated at 37°C for 3 hours. They were then inoculated into the growth vessel of the calorimeter containing 600 ml of TSB to give a final concentration of 10^4 CFU ml⁻¹. In the ampoule calorimetric experiments, the bacteria were subcultured from blood agar plates to TSB and incubated at 37°C for 4 hours before use. They were then inoculated into the antibiotic-containing culture medium of the test ampoule to give a final concentration of 10^4 CFU ml⁻¹.

Antibiotics

Cephalaxin and cephaloridin were supplied by Glaxo (Sweden) as a dry powder. Stock solutions of the antibiotics ($1000 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$) were prepared in phosphate buffered saline, pH 7.2. The final concentrations of the antibiotics (expressed in $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$) were based on the active portion of the drug.

Determination of MIC and MBC

The MIC of the antibiotics used was determined by the broth dilution technique (12) using TSB. The minimal bactericidal concentration (MBC) was defined as the lowest concentration of antibiotic that completely inhibited colony formation on blood agar plates. In the MBC tests, aliquots of 0.05 ml of the broth cultures from the MIC tests, which contained increasing concentrations of antibiotic, were seeded onto blood agar plates after overnight incubation at 37°C.

The MIC and MBC of cephaloridin for the strain of *E. coli* were 3.0 and $7.5 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ and for cephalaxin 4.5 and $7.5 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$. The MIC of cephalaxin for the staphylococcal strain was $0.50 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ while the MBC was $1.5 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$.

Flow calorimetric experiments

The flow microcalorimeter used was a slightly modified version of the instrument described by Monk & Wadso (1) which is an instrument similar to the LKB

(Stockholm Sweden) flow microcalorimeter model 10700-1. The thermo-sensitive cell is a Teflon rod embedded in Wood's metal in a thin-walled aluminum box. The experimental procedures used in the calorimetric studies have been described in detail previously (6).

The growth vessel of the flow calorimeter was placed in a thermostatic bath holding 37.00°C. During the experimental period the broth was aerated constantly by bubbling sterile air through the growth medium. The medium was pumped through the calorimetric cell by means of a peristaltic pump (LKB model 10 200) at a flow rate of 28 ml h^{-1} . The antibiotics were added to the broth cultures when there was a logarithmic increase in the heat effects developed. In each test, the addition was made at exactly the same heat production level i.e. $40 \mu\text{W ml}^{-1}$.

Ampoule Calorimetric Experiments

The ampoule calorimeter and calorimetric test conditions used were those described earlier (3, 11). The test ampoule was filled with 3 ml of the antibiotic-containing broth culture of *E. coli* and the reference ampoule with the same amount of sterile antibiotic-containing medium. The gas phase (1 ml) in the ampoule was air.

Determination of Viable Count, Optical Density and pH Studies of Bacterial Cell Morphology

Aliquots of the cultures were collected at chosen intervals and the number of colony forming units (CFU) ml⁻¹ was determined by viable counts on blood agar plates. For the demonstration of cell-wall deficient bacterial forms, viable counts were also made on an L phase variant media consisting of heart infusion broth or agar (Difco) 45 ml supplemented by horse serum 20 ml yeast extract (bakers yeast 25% w/v) 5 ml, sucrose 8.5 g, $\text{MgSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$ 17 g, pH 7.2. The optical density at 540 nm (OD_{540}) of the broth samples was measured in a Limcon 3 photometer (AB Ljungberg & Co. Stockholm), and pH was measured by a pH meter (Radiometer Copenhagen). After gram-staining the bacteria were studied under a light microscope ($\times 1200$).

Determination of the Concentration of Cephalaxin

Aliquots of the broth medium from the growth vessel of the flow calorimeter were collected at chosen intervals after the addition of cephalaxin. The concentration of cephalaxin in these samples was determined by the agar well diffusion technique. Petri dishes, 14 cm in diameter containing an agar layer of 3 mm of diagnostic sensitivity test agar (Oxoid), pH 7.2 were used. The plates were dried at 37°C for 60 minutes before use. The test organism i.e. a *Sarcina* sp. was suspended in saline to 10^4 bacteria ml⁻¹. Fresh standard solutions of cephalaxin were made in TSB, pH 7.1. The suspension of bacteria was poured over the plates and excess broth was sucked off immediately. The plates were then dried at 37°C for 1 hour. Wells, 5 mm in diameter were punched out in the agar. 0.025 ml of the solutions of antibiotic or of the specimens were deposited into the wells. The diameters of the zones of inhibition were measured after incubation for 18 hours at 37°C.

Test for Beta-lactamase Production

The test strains of *E. coli* and *S. aureus* were studied for beta-lactamase production using chromogenic cephalosporin (Compound 87/312, Glaxo Research Ltd, Greenford, England) (7). The same strain isolated at the end of calorimetric experiments with cephalotin were also tested.

RESULTS

Flow Calorimetric Experiments

E. coli. Fig. 1 shows the thermogram by a culture of *E. coli* to which cephalotin $9.0 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ (i.e. $2 \times \text{MIC}$) was added in the logarithmic growth phase at a heat production of $40 \mu\text{W ml}^{-1}$. There was an increase in the heat production and in the number of CFU ml^{-1} until the drug was added. Both parameters then decreased after which the heat production showed a transient increase before it rose definitely after approximately 11 hours. The number of CFU ml^{-1} had increased considerably 20 hours after the start of the experiment. At that time the pH, which had been stable up to 9 hours, had decreased, while the OD₅₄₀, which was low up to 9 hours, had increased.

The morphological studies showed that half-an-hour after the addition of cephalotin, the bacteria formed filamentous cells that sometimes appeared branched. These changes were successively more pronounced. Cell lysis was marked after approximately 9 hours. Espinulation after 21 hours showed spheroplast-like bacteria.

The MIC and MBC were $4.5 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ and $7.5 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ respectively at the start of the experiment. After 21 hours they had both increased to $200 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$.

No beta-lactamase production of the test organisms could be demonstrated before or after exposure for 21 hours to cephalotin, $2 \times \text{MIC}$.

In another series of experiments, the effects of cephalotin ($2 \times \text{MIC}$) on the heat production of the strain of *E. coli* were compared with those of cephaloridin ($2 \times \text{MIC}$). Cephaloridin seemed to have more pronounced initial effects on the heat production than cephalotin (Fig. 2). On the other hand, the slower increase in heat came somewhat earlier for cephaloridin than for cephalotin.

S. aureus. Effects on heat production, viable count, pH, and OD₅₄₀ similar to those found in *E.*

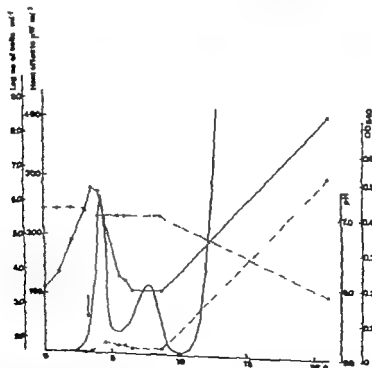


Fig. 1 Heat effects (—) produced by a strain of *Escherichia coli* exposed to $2 \times \text{MIC}$ ($9.0 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$) of cephalotin. The antibiotic was added (indicated by arrow) in the logarithmic growth phase at a heat production of $40 \mu\text{W ml}^{-1}$. Also shown are the number of colony-forming units ml^{-1} (●—●), optical density (OD₅₄₀) (●—●) and pH of the medium (●—●) at indicated time intervals. Flow calorimetric experiment.

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In the present investigation the kinetics of the action of cephalaxin and cephaloridin on *E. coli* and *S. aureus* were studied by means of ampoule and flow calorimetry. The effects on heat production were related to the influence on viable counts, pH and optical density of the medium.

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Determination of the Concentration of Cephalaxin

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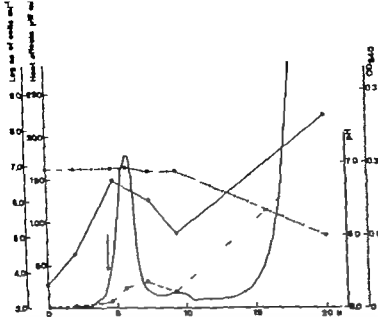


Fig. 3 Heat effects (—) produced by a strain of *Streptococcus aureus* exposed to $5 \times \text{MIC}$ ($2.5 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$) of cephaloridine. The antibiotic was added (indicated by arrow) in the logarithmic growth phase at a heat production of $40 \mu\text{W ml}^{-1}$. Also shown are the number of colony-forming units ml^{-1} (●—●), optical density (OD_{490}) (●—●) and pH of the medium (●—●) at indicated time intervals. Flow calorimetric experiment.

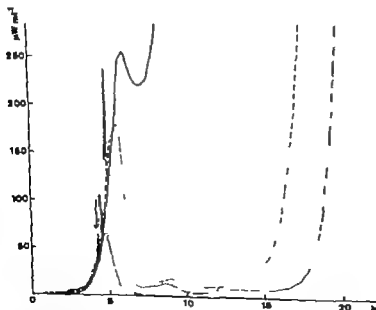


Fig. 4 Heat effects produced by a strain of *Streptococcus aureus* exposed to cephaloridine in increasing concentrations, i.e. $2 \times \text{MIC}$ ($1.0 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$) (—), $5 \times \text{MIC}$ ($2.5 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$) (---), $10 \times \text{MIC}$ ($5 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$) (····) and $100 \times \text{MIC}$ ($50 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$) (- · - ·). The antibiotic was added (indicated by arrow) in the logarithmic growth phase at a heat production of $40 \mu\text{W ml}^{-1}$. Flow calorimetric experiments.

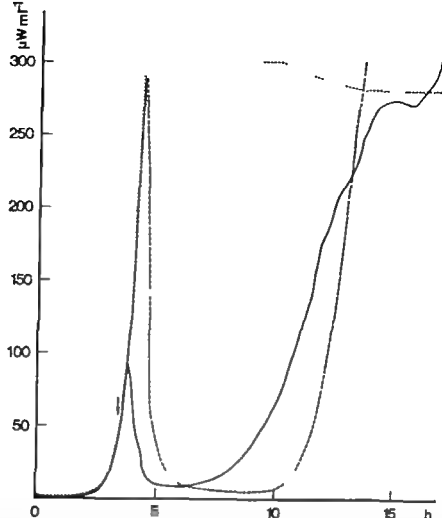


Fig. 2 Heat effects produced by a strain of *Escherichia coli* cultured in the absence of antibiotics (---) and when exposed to cephalixin in a concentration corresponding to $2 \times \text{MIC}$ ($9.0 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$) (—) and cephaloridin $2 \times \text{MIC}$ ($6.0 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$) (—). The antibiotics were added (indicated by arrow) in the logarithmic growth phase at a heat production of $40 \mu\text{W ml}^{-1}$. Flow calorimetric experiments.

coli were observed when cephalixin $2.5 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ ($5 \times \text{MIC}$) was added to the culture of *S. aureus* (Fig. 3). At a time when the heat effects and the viable counts had decreased, the morphological studies indicated that cell lysis had occurred. Fifteen hours after the start of the experiment, there was an increase in the heat production, which had been low for several hours. At 20 hours the number of CFU ml^{-1} and OD_{540} had increased, whereas the pH had decreased as compared to the time at which the antibiotic was added. The use of the L-phase variant medium gave the same number of CFU ml^{-1} as found on the blood agar plates inoculated with samples collected at the same time. The bacterial cells isolated at this time showed normal morphology.

The concentration of cephaloridin remained constant during the experimental period.

The MIC increased from $0.5 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ at the start of the experiment to $1.0 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ 20 hours later and

the MBC increased from $1.5 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ to $16.0 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$.

No beta lactamase production of the test organisms could be demonstrated before or after exposure to cephalixin, $5 \times \text{MIC}$ for 16 hours.

The effects of cephalixin on *S. aureus* were dependent on the concentration of antibiotic used (Fig. 4). An increase in the concentration of the drug from $2 \times \text{MIC}$ to $100 \times \text{MIC}$ depressed the heat production and caused a delay in the 'late' development of heat. At a concentration of $100 \times \text{MIC}$, cephalixin abolished completely the late heat production during the experimental period.

Ampoule Calorimetric Experiments

In ampoule calorimetric experiments, the strain of *E. coli* was cultured in the presence of cephaloridin and cephaloridin in concentrations corresponding to $\frac{1}{2}$ and $1 \times \text{MIC}$ (Fig. 5). When using $\frac{1}{2} \times \text{MIC}$ the shapes of the thermograms were almost the

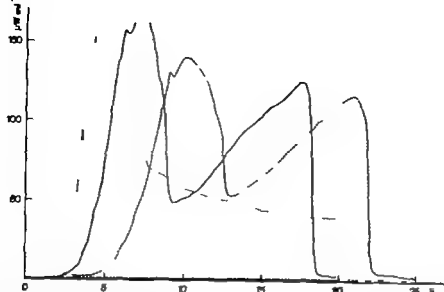


Fig. 5 Heat effects produced by a strain of *Escherichia coli* cultured in the absence of antibiotics (—), in the presence of cephalixin (—) in concentrations corresponding to $\frac{1}{2}$ and $1 \times$ MIC (2.3 and 4.6 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$), and in the presence of cephaloridin (---) $\frac{1}{2}$ and $1 \times$ MIC (1.5 and 3.0 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$). Drugs added at zero time. No heat effects were produced when concentrations corresponding to $1 \times$ MIC were used. Ampoule calorimetric experiments.

same. In the experiment with cephaloridin the heat effects were recorded somewhat later than with cephalixin. When using $1 \times$ MIC, no heat effects were produced during the experimental period.

DISCUSSION

It has been demonstrated previously that, in the calorimetric system used, at least 10^4 – 10^5 organisms ml^{-1} are required before any heat effects can be registered (10). This observation is in accordance with the results of the present viable count determinations.

The heat registered was found to correspond only roughly to the number of CFU ml^{-1} . The number of organisms surviving and able to produce colonies after being transferred to fresh culture medium was determined by viable counts. However this technique does not provide information concerning the metabolic activity of the microorganisms. Such information can be obtained by calorimetry which also gives a continuous recording of the metabolic activity of the organisms in the culture. To determine continuously the viable counts in a broth culture is however practically impossible. Continuous registration of the optical density of a culture medium can be made, but this registration does not discriminate between viable and non viable organisms. Nor can information concerning the metabolic activity of the total cell mass be obtained by this technique. In the flow calorimetric experiments the addition of the antibiotics in the logarithmic growth

phase was followed by a reduction of the number of CFU ml^{-1} and in the heat effects evolved. The second increase in the heat production was related in time to a rise in viable counts and OD_{540} .

The second increase in heat production, which occurred after the introduction of the drugs, might have been explained by degradation or inactivation of the antibiotics, or by development of «tolerance» of the organism to the drugs (9). In our experiments with cephalixin these alternatives could be excluded. No decrease in the concentration of the drug could be demonstrated during the experimental period. There was no marked difference between MIC and MBC after the organisms had been exposed to the two cephalosporins, which is in contrast to findings with penicillin-tolerant organisms of *S. aureus* (9). The results of the MIC determinations indicate a selection of resistant mutants as an explanation of the late heat increase. The morphological studies and the use of an L phase variant medium did not suggest that the late heat increase found when testing *S. aureus* was due to cell wall-deficient bacteria resistant to the action of the cephalosporins tested.

When testing the strain of *S. aureus* to increasing concentrations of cephalixin, the time period before the late heat increase occurred was directly correlated with the concentration of the antibiotic used. In an earlier microcalorimetric study (5), in which *S. aureus* was exposed to increasing concentrations of benzylpenicillin and ampicillin we did not find any simple relation between concentration and response.

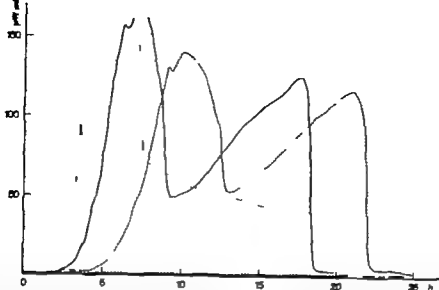


Fig. 5 Heat effects produced by a strain of *Escherichia coli* cultured in the absence of antibiotics (—), in the presence of cephalaxin (---) in concentrations corresponding to $\frac{1}{2}$ and $1 \times$ MIC (2.3 and 4.6 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$), and in the presence of cephaloridin (---) $\frac{1}{2}$ and $1 \times$ MIC (1.5 and 3.0 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$). Drugs added at zero time. No heat effects were produced when concentrations corresponding to $1 \times$ MIC were used. Ampoule calorimetric experiments.

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The second increase in heat production, which occurred after the introduction of the drugs, might have been explained by degradation or inactivation of the antibiotics, or by development of tolerance of the organism to the drugs (9). In our experiments with cephalaxin these alternatives could be excluded. No decrease in the concentration of the drug could be demonstrated during the experimental period. There was no marked difference between MIC and MBC after the organisms had been exposed to the two cephalosporins, which is in contrast to findings with penicillin-tolerant organisms of *S. aureus* (9). The results of the MIC determinations indicate a selection of resistant mutants as an explanation of the late heat increase. The morphological studies and the use of an L phase variant medium did not suggest that the late heat increase found when testing *S. aureus* was due to cell wall-deficient bacteria resistant to the action of the cephalosporins tested.

When testing the strain of *S. aureus* to increasing concentrations of cephalaxin, the time period before the late heat increase occurred was directly correlated with the concentration of the antibiotic used. In an earlier microcalorimetric study (5) in which *S. aureus* was exposed to increasing concentrations of benzylpenicillin and ampicillin, we did not find any simple relation between concentration and response.

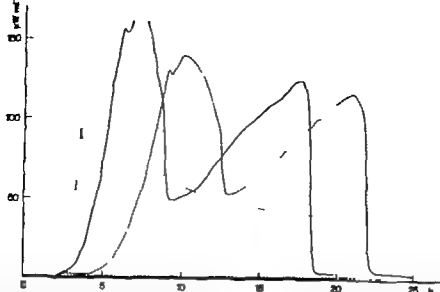


Fig. 5 Heat effects produced by a strain of *Escherichia coli* cultured in the absence of antibiotics (—), in the presence of cephaloridin (---) in concentrations corresponding to $\frac{1}{2}$ and $1 \times$ MIC (2.3 and 4.6 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$), and in the presence of cephaloridin (— · —) and $1 \times$ MIC (1.5 and 3.0 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$). Drugs added at zero time. No heat effects were produced when concentrations corresponding to $1 \times$ MIC were used. Ampoule calorimetric experiments.

same. In the experiment with cephaloridin the heat effects were recorded somewhat later than with cephaloridin. When using $1 \times$ MIC no heat effects were produced during the experimental period.

DISCUSSION

It has been demonstrated previously that, in the calorimetric system used, at least 10^4 – 10^5 organisms ml^{-1} are required before any heat effects can be registered (10). This observation is in accordance with the results of the present viable count determinations.

The heat registered was found to correspond only roughly to the number of CFU ml^{-1} . The number of organisms surviving and able to produce colonies after being transferred to fresh culture medium was determined by viable counts. However, this technique does not provide information concerning the metabolic activity of the microorganisms. Such information can be obtained by calorimetry which also gives a continuous recording of the metabolic activity of the organisms in the culture. To determine continuously the viable counts in a broth culture is however practically impossible. Continuous registration of the optical density of a culture medium can be made, but this registration does not discriminate between viable and non viable organisms. Nor can information concerning the metabolic activity of the total cell mass be obtained by this technique. In the flow calorimetric experiments, the addition of the antibiotics in the logarithmic growth

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The second increase in heat production which occurred after the introduction of the drugs, might have been explained by degradation or inactivation of the antibiotics, or by development of «tolerance» of the organism to the drugs (9). In our experiments with cephaloridin these alternatives could be excluded. No decrease in the concentration of the drug could be demonstrated during the experimental period. There was no marked difference between MIC and MBC after the organisms had been exposed to the two cephalosporins, which is in contrast to findings with penicillin-tolerant organisms of *S. aureus* (9). The results of the MIC determinations indicate a selection of resistant mutants as an explanation of the late heat increase. The morphological studies and the use of an L phase variant medium did not suggest that the late heat increase found when testing *S. aureus* was due to cell wall-deficient bacteria resistant to the action of the cephalosporins tested.

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Thus, the drugs in concentrations corresponding to 5 and $10 \times \text{MIC}$ decreased the heat production less effectively than when concentrations corresponding to 2 and $100 \times \text{MIC}$ were used. In this study a late increase in heat production was observed, except when very high concentrations of the drugs were used. Similar findings were obtained in studies of cloxacillin (4) and tetracyclines (6).

In the ampoule calorimetric experiments, the drug was present from the start, i.e. when the organisms were in the lag phase. No oxygen was added in these experiments as in the flow calorimetric experiments. The ampoule calorimetric technique has also other disadvantages as compared to flow calorimetry e.g. it does not allow sampling during the experimental period. This contributes to the difficulty in interpretation of the thermograms obtained. The thermograms of the ampoule calorimetric experiments using cephalosins and cephaloridine indicated that the kinetics of the antibacterial activity of the two cephalosporins were similar. However, the heat production in the cephaloridine-containing culture occurred somewhat later than with cephalosin. This suggests that microcalorimetry can be used to study differences in, for instance, the time of onset of the antibacterial action of antibiotics.

The calorimetric experiments were performed in cooperation with the Thermochemistry Laboratory, Chemical Center, University of Lund. The study was supported by grant No. 16X-4503 from the Swedish Medical Research Council and by a grant to the Thermochemistry Laboratory from the Swedish National Board for Technical Development. The kind support of Prof. J. Wadö and the skilful help of Miss Eva Österström and Miss Åke-Carlsson Petersson are gratefully acknowledged.

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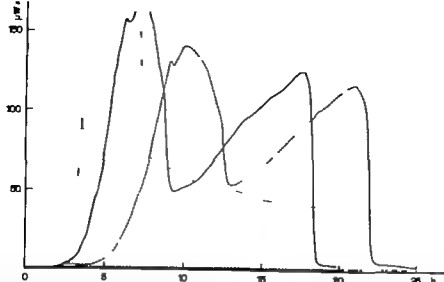


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BACITRACIN PRODUCTION BY THE HIGH YIELDING MUTANT *BACILLUS LICHENIFORMIS* STRAIN AL. STIMULATORY EFFECT OF L-LEUCINE

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HAAVIK, H. I. & VESSIA, BERT. Bacitracin production by the high-yielding mutant *Bacillus licheniformis* strain AL. stimulatory effect of L-leucine. Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B, 86: 67-70, 1978

The high-yielding mutant *Bacillus licheniformis* AL produced only small amounts of bacitracin in the chemically defined M2 medium. L-leucine markedly stimulated bacitracin production and restored the mutant strain to its place as a superior producer as compared to *Bacillus licheniformis* ATCC 10716. Leucine also stimulated the growth rate of the mutant. The stimulatory effect of leucine on bacitracin production is discussed in relation to control mechanisms and overproduction of antibiotics.

Key words: Bacitracin, high-yielding mutant, stimulation by leucine.

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Industrial production of the important antibiotic relies on certain high-producing mutants which are more or less remote descendants of the original antibiotic producing microorganisms once isolated from nature. The high-yielding mutants have been developed in various mutation and selection programmes (1,3).

Although these programmes have been time-consuming and laborious, we still have a poor knowledge of the cellular mechanisms responsible for the overproduction of antibiotics in these superior mutants (3,10).

However, some suggestions have been made. Delaney (4) has suggested that blocking of alternate pathways of intermediates or blocking of further degradation of the antibiotic may increase yields. Demain (2,3) has put forward the interesting hypothesis that superior mutants may have altered control mechanisms for antibiotic synthesis.

We have studied a high-yielding bacitracin producing mutant, *Bacillus licheniformis* strain AL,

and compared it with the original bacitracin producing culture *Bacillus licheniformis* ATCC 10716, in order to obtain some information regarding overproduction of this antibiotic.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Reagents. All reagents used were of analytical grade, except the ingredients of the complete industrial production medium.

Organisms. The bacitracin producing strains *Bacillus licheniformis* AL and ATCC 10716 were kept as spore suspensions at 4° C.

Media and growth conditions. The industrial production medium consisted of a mixture of some flours and malt with soy bean flour as the main component. The chemically defined M2 medium consisted of glutamic acid and salts (9). The essential amino acids of bacitracin (see Table 2) were added singly to the medium before autoclaving at 121° C for 20 min. The inoculum was 0.5 ml of an overnight culture in the M2 medium. Bacteria were grown in 500 ml Erlenmeyer flasks (containing 90 ml medium) in a 37° C water bath with

BACTRACIN PRODUCTION BY THE HIGH YIELDING MUTANT *BACILLUS LICHENIFORMIS* STRAIN AL STIMULATORY EFFECT OF L-LEUCINE

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MATERIALS AND METHODS

Reagents. All reagents used were of analytical grade, except the ingredients of the complex industrial production medium.

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Media and growth conditions. The industrial production medium consisted of a mixture of some flours and salts with soy bean flour as the main component. The chemically defined M2 medium consisted of glucose, acid and salts (7). The constituent amino acids of bactracin (see Table 2) were added singly to the medium before autoclaving at 121° C for 20 min. The inoculum was 0.5 ml of an overnight culture in the M2 medium. Bacteria were grown in 500 ml Erlenmeyer flasks (containing 50 ml medium) in a 37° C water bath with

shaking (120 rev/min) or on a New Brunswick rotary shaker (260 rev/min).

General bacterial growth was measured as extinction at 650 mμ (E 650) in a Spectronic 20 spectrophotometer. Microbiological assay Bacitracin was determined by an agar diffusion method, as described previously (7).

RESULTS

In a complex production medium, the high-yielding mutant *Bacillus licheniformis* strain AL produced about 50 per cent more bacitracin than the original bacitracin producing strain *Bacillus licheniformis*

TABLE 1 Growth and Bacitracin Production by *B. licheniformis* strain ATCC 10716 and AL in M2 Medium

| Strain | Doubling time (minutes) | Maximum growth (E 650) | Maximum bacitracin production (i.u./ml) |
|------------|-------------------------|------------------------|---|
| ATCC 10716 | 69 | 9-10 | 10-13 |
| AL | 100 | 9-10 | 1-2 |

ATCC 10716 Both strains seemed to produce bacitracin throughout the period of active growth.

In the chemically defined M2 medium, *B. licheniformis* ATCC 10716 produced about 12 i.u./ml (Table 1). The high-yielding mutant *B. licheniformis* AL grew well in the M2 medium and

TABLE 2 Effect of the Constituent Amino Acids on Bacitracin Production by *B. licheniformis* strain AL

| Amino acid added (1 g/l) | Growth (E650) | Bacitracin (i.u./ml) |
|--------------------------|---------------|----------------------|
| none | 8.8 | 1.5 |
| L-isoleucine | 8.8 | 0.7 |
| L-cysteine | 8.8 | 0.4 |
| L-leucine | 9.3 | 22.4 |
| D-glutamic acid | 8.6 | 1.0 |
| L-lysine | 9.1 | 2.0 |
| D-ornithine | 8.4 | 1.2 |
| D-phenylalanine | 8.8 | 3.6 |
| L-histidine | 7.6 | 1.6 |
| D-asparagine | 5.4 | 0.6 |
| L-aspartic acid | 8.6 | 2.0 |
| L-ornithine (a) | 8.4 | 1.5 |
| L-phenylalanine (a) | 9.0 | 1.5 |
| L-asparagine (a) | 8.8 | 2.4 |

(a) L-isomers of the corresponding constituent D-amino acids (6)

Results after incubation for 18 hours

TABLE 3 Effect of Leucine upon Bacitracin Production by *B. licheniformis* strain ATCC 10716 and AL

| Added leucine (g/l) | Strain ATCC 10716 | | Strain AL | |
|---------------------|-------------------|----------------------|---------------|----------------------|
| | Growth (E650) | Bacitracin (i.u./ml) | Growth (E650) | Bacitracin (i.u./ml) |
| none | 8.4 | 11.8 | 9.5 | 1.3 |
| 0.2 | 9.5 | 11.2 | 9.7 | 12.7 |
| 0.5 | 8.8 | 10.2 | 9.2 | 20.8 |
| 0.7 | 8.7 | 11.6 | 9.4 | 22.4 |
| 1.0 | 9.0 | 13.0 | 10.0 | 21.6 |
| 2.0 | 9.1 | 12.4 | 10.0 | 20.8 |

Results after incubation for 18 hours.

reached about the same maximum crop as *B. licheniformis* ATCC 10716. However strain AL showed a longer lag period and a markedly slower growth rate than strain ATCC 10716. The mutant strain was a poor bacitracin producer in the M2 medium (Table 1). Very small amounts of bacitracin accumulated during growth, with maximum production towards end of growth of about 1.5 i.u./ml.

However when the constituent amino acids of bacitracin were added to the M2 medium (singly), the bacitracin production of the mutant AL was markedly stimulated in the presence of L-leucine (Table 2). None of the other constituent amino acids showed this stimulatory effect. Nor did the L-isomers of the constituent D-amino acids stimulate the bacitracin production of strain AL, (Table 2).

TABLE 4 Growth and Bacitracin Production by *B. licheniformis* strain ATCC 10716 and AL in M2 Medium with Leucine (0.7 g/l)

| Strain | Doubling time (minutes) | Maximum growth (E 650) | Maximum bacitracin production (i.u./ml) |
|------------|-------------------------|------------------------|---|
| ATCC 10716 | 63 | 9-10 | 10-13 |
| AL | 79 | 9-10 | 20-22 |

Table 2 shows the results obtained after incubation for 18 hours. Results obtained at earlier or later stages of the growth phase give the same picture viz. a marked stimulatory effect of L-leucine. D-asparagine resulted in an inhibition of growth.

Maximum bacitracin production occurred with 0.7 g leucine/l in the M2 medium. A further increase of this amino acid had no stimulatory effect

(Table 3) L-leucine had no stimulatory effect upon bacitracin production by *B. licheniformis* ATCC 10716 (Table 3). The growth rate of the mutant strain AL was markedly increased in the presence of leucine (Table 4).

L-leucine did not stimulate the bacitracin production by strain AL in the complex production medium.

DISCUSSION

Mutation and selection have provided useful mutants with increased antibiotic production. However, we know very little about the cellular mechanisms responsible for the high antibiotic production in these mutants. One suggestion is that mutations which result in blocking of alternate pathways of intermediates involved in antibiotic biosynthesis may provide an increased flow of these intermediates towards antibiotic formation, thus increasing the yield (4). This hypothesis may explain why an increase in antibiotic production usually occurs in a stepwise manner and why improved mutants are increasingly difficult to obtain as yields are increased. The missing end products from the blocked pathways are supposed to be provided from the complex fermentation media employed.

The high yielding mutant *B. licheniformis* AL has been subject to several mutagenic treatments before its high productivity was expressed. This industrial production mutant can still grow in the chemically defined M2 medium. No vital pathways can therefore have been blocked in this mutant.

However, the mutant strain AL behaves differently from strain ATCC 10716 in the M2 medium. *B. licheniformis* AL shows a markedly slower growth rate and a poor bacitracin production in the M2 medium as compared to *B. licheniformis* ATCC 10716. It is interesting that a mutant which is a superior producer in one medium may be an inferior producer in another.

The amino acid L-leucine markedly stimulated the growth rate and the bacitracin production by the mutant strain in the M2 medium. The addition of 0.5 g leucine/l or more restored strain AL to its place as a superior producer of bacitracin in a defined medium. L-leucine had no stimulatory effect on bacitracin production by strain ATCC 10716 and there was only a slight stimulatory effect on the growth rate.

L-leucine was the only constituent amino acid of bacitracin which was able to restore the high yielding mutant AL to its place as a superior producer in the chemically defined medium. However, a slight stimulatory effect upon bacitracin production was observed in the presence of D-phenylalanine.

Saake (14) reported that D-phenylalanine inhibited bacitracin production by *B. licheniformis* ATCC 10716 when no L-phenylalanine was added. He suggested that the D-isomer prevented the utilization of the L-isomer that the L-isomers were used as such in the biosynthesis of bacitracin, and that conversion to the D-form does not occur with the free amino acid. Later Pfaender *et al.* (11) reported that none of the constituent D-amino acids of bacitracin (glutamic acid, ornithine, phenylalanine and asparagine) supported bacitracin production in a crude cell-free extract of *B. licheniformis* ATCC 10716. In contrast to this, Freysher & Laland (6) have shown that the D-isomers of glutamic acid, phenylalanine and asparagine could support bacitracin production in their cell-free preparation of *B. licheniformis* ATCC 10716. The stimulatory effect of D-phenylalanine on bacitracin production by strain AL is in line with the results obtained by Freysher & Laland (6).

The bacitracin synthetase multienzyme complex of strain ATCC 10716 and strain AL have been compared *in vitro* (8). There were no differences between the two synthetases. The amino acids of the bacitracin molecule (including L-leucine) were activated in a similar manner and different enzyme components could be interchanged without disturbing bacitracin biosynthesis. This indicates that the two strains have similar bacitracin synthetases.

The most interesting hypothesis concerning high production of antibiotics is that the known control mechanisms in the metabolism, i.e. induction, feedback regulation, catabolite regulation and energy charge regulation, may also affect antibiotic biosynthesis, and that the high-yielding mutants selected from the various screening programmes may have defects or modifications in these control mechanisms (2,3).

It is reported that growth of *E. coli* in the presence of leucine results in a decrease of leucine transport activity (13). Furthermore, it has been observed that leucine activated as leucyl-tRNA is able to repress branched-chain amino acid transport (15). Thus both exogenous and endogenous leucine may participate in the control of leucine uptake.

Leucine is supposed to play a central role in metabolism by inhibiting or stimulating several important enzymes (16). Fraser & Newman (5) have suggested that intracellular leucine levels may serve as a signal for nitrogen scavenging during periods of amino acid imbalance. Thus leucine may be an alertone analogous to cAMP and ppGpp. A more or less direct connection between internal leucine levels and high bacitracin production is therefore an interesting possibility.

shaking (120 rev/min) or on a New Brunswick rotatory shaker (260 rev/min).

Gross bacterial growth was measured as extinction at 650 nm (E 650) in a Spectronic 20 spectrophotometer. Microbiological assay. Bacitracin was determined by an agar diffusion method, as described previously (7).

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| none | 8.8 | 1.5 |
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| L-leucine | 9.3 | 22.4 |
| D-glutamic acid | 8.6 | 1.0 |
| L-lysine | 9.1 | 2.0 |
| D-oronithine | 8.4 | 1.2 |
| D-phenylalanine | 8.8 | 3.6 |
| L-histidine | 7.6 | 1.6 |
| D-asparagine | 4.4 | 0.6 |
| L-aspartic acid | 8.6 | 2.0 |
| L-oronithine (a) | 8.4 | 1.5 |
| L-phenylalanine (a) | 9.0 | 1.5 |
| L-asparagine (a) | 8.8 | 2.4 |

(a) L isomers of the corresponding constituent D-amino acids (6).

Results after incubation for 18 hours.

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|---------------------|-------------------|----------------------|----------------|----------------------|
| | Growth (E 650) | Bacitracin (i.u./ml) | Growth (E 650) | Bacitracin (i.u./ml) |
| none | 8.4 | 11.8 | 9.5 | 1.3 |
| 0.2 | 9.5 | 11.2 | 9.7 | 12. |
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Results after incubation for 18 hours.

reached about the same maximum crop as *B. licheniformis* ATCC 10716. However strain AL showed a longer lag period and a markedly slower growth rate than strain ATCC 10716. The mutant strain was a poor bacitracin producer in the M2 medium (Table 1). Very small amounts of bacitracin accumulated during growth, with maximum production towards end of growth of about 1.5 i.u./ml.

However when the constituent amino acids of bacitracin were added to the M2 medium (singly) the bacitracin production of the mutant AL was markedly stimulated in the presence of L-leucine (Table 2). None of the other constituent amino acids showed this stimulatory effect. Nor did the L isomers of the constituent D-amino acids stimulate the bacitracin production of strain AL, (Table 2).

TABLE 4. Growth and Bacitracin Production by *B. licheniformis* strain ATCC 10716 and AL in M2 Medium with Leucine (0.7 g/l)

| Strain | Doubling time (minutes) | Maximum growth (E 650) | Maximum bacitracin production (i.u./ml) |
|------------|-------------------------|------------------------|---|
| ATCC 10716 | 63 | 9-10 | 10-13 |
| AL | 79 | 9-10 | 20-22 |

Table 2 shows the results obtained after incubation for 18 hours. Results obtained at earlier or later stages of the growth phase give the same picture viz. a marked stimulatory effect of L-leucine. D-asparagine resulted in an inhibition of growth.

Maximum bacitracin production occurred with 0.7 g leucine/l in the M2 medium. A further increase of this amino acid had no stimulatory effect.

(Table 3). L-leucine had no stimulatory effect upon bacitracin production by *B. licheniformis* ATCC 10716 (Table 3). The growth rate of the mutant strain AL was markedly increased in the presence of leucine (Table 4).

L-leucine did not stimulate the bacitracin production by strain AL in the complex production medium.

DISCUSSION

Mutation and selection have provided useful mutants with increased antibiotic production. However, we know very little about the cellular mechanisms responsible for the high antibiotic production in these mutants. One suggestion is that mutations which result in blocking of alternate pathways of intermediates involved in antibiotic biosynthesis may provide an increased flow of these intermediates towards antibiotic formation thus increasing the yield (4). This hypothesis may explain why an increase in antibiotic production usually occurs in a stepwise manner and why improved mutants are increasingly difficult to obtain as yields are increased. The missing end products from the blocked pathways are supposed to be provided from the complex fermentation media employed.

The high yielding mutant *B. licheniformis* AL has been subject to several mutagenic treatments before its high productivity was expressed. This industrial production mutant can still grow in the chemically defined M2 medium. No vital pathways can therefore have been blocked in this mutant.

However, the mutant strain AL behaves differently from strain ATCC 10716 in the M2 medium. *B. licheniformis* AL shows a markedly slow growth rate and a poor bacitracin production in the M2 medium as compared to *B. licheniformis* ATCC 10716. It is interesting that a mutant which is a superior producer in one medium may be an inferior producer in another.

The amino acid L-leucine markedly stimulated the growth rate and the bacitracin production by the mutant strain in the M2 medium. The addition of 0.5 g leucine/l or more restored strain AL to its place as a superior producer of bacitracin in a defined medium. L-leucine had no stimulatory effect on bacitracin production by strain ATCC 10716 and there was only a slight stimulatory effect on the growth rate.

L-leucine was the only constituent amino acid of bacitracin which was able to restore the high yielding mutant AL to its place as a superior producer in the chemically defined medium. However, a slight stimulatory effect upon bacitracin production was observed in the presence of D-phenylalanine.

Snake (14) reported that D-phenylalanine inhibited bacitracin production by *B. licheniformis* ATCC 10716 when no L-phenylalanine was added. He suggested that the D-isomer prevented the utilization of the L-isomer that the L-isomers were used as such in the biosynthesis of bacitracin, and that conversion to the D-form does not occur with the free amino acid. Later Pfander *et al.* (11) reported that none of the constituent D-amino acids of bacitracin (glutamic acid, ornithine, phenylalanine and asparagine) supported bacitracin production in a crude cell-free extract of *B. licheniformis* ATCC 10716. In contrast to this, Frerking & Laland (6) have shown that the D-isomers of glutamic acid, phenylalanine and asparagine could support bacitracin production in their cell-free preparation of *B. licheniformis* ATCC 10716. The stimulatory effect of D-phenylalanine on bacitracin production by strain AL is in line with the results obtained by Frerking & Laland (6).

The bacitracin synthetase multienzyme complexes of strain ATCC 10716 and strain AL have been compared *in vitro* (8). There were no differences between the two synthetases. The amino acids of the bacitracin molecule (including L-leucine) were activated in a similar manner and different enzyme components could be interchanged without disturbing bacitracin biosynthesis. This indicates that the two strains have similar bacitracin synthetases.

The most interesting hypothesis concerning high production of antibiotics is that the known control mechanisms in the metabolism, i.e. induction, feedback regulation, catabolic regulation and energy charge regulation, may also affect antibiotic biosynthesis, and that the high-yielding mutants selected from the various screening programmes may have defects or modifications in these control mechanisms (2,3).

It is reported that growth of *E. coli* in the presence of leucine results in a decrease of leucine transport activity (13). Furthermore, it has been observed that leucine activated as leucyl-tRNA is able to repress branched-chain amino acid transport (15). Thus both exogenous and endogenous leucine may participate in the control of leucine uptake.

Leucine is supposed to play a central role in metabolism by inhibiting or stimulating several important enzymes (16). Fraser & Newman (5) have suggested that intracellular leucine levels may serve as a signal for nitrogen scavenging during periods of amino acid imbalance. Thus leucine may be an alarmone analogous to cAMP and ppGpp. A more or less direct connection between internal leucine levels and high bacitracin production is therefore an interesting possibility.

Probably the mutant *B. licheniformis* AL has a reduced capacity to synthesize leucine and thus has a less firm control of internal leucine levels. This may explain why the addition of leucine markedly increases the growth rate of the mutant.

It is also possible that low internal leucine may result in a more or less uncontrolled uptake of this amino acid, and the resulting high internal leucine levels may stimulate bacitracin production.

Although strain AL has need of leucine for rapid growth in the M2 medium, the mutant still produces small amounts of bacitracin in the absence of exogenous leucine. This indicates that small amounts of bacitracin may be necessary for the cells.

(d) It is also possible that the cells may have different utilization of exogenous and endogenous amino acid pools for antibiotic and protein synthesis as may be the case with actinomycin production by *Streptomyces antibioticus* (12).

This investigation supports the hypothesis that high-yielding antibiotic-producing mutants may have various defects or modifications in control mechanisms.

Grateful thanks are due to Mr T Hayland, Director of Research and Development, for his support, and to Mr S Thomassen for commenting on the manuscript.

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DEOXYRIBONUCLEIC ACID HYBRIDIZATION BETWEEN DIFFERENT SPECIES OF MYCOBACTERIA

I. BAESS AND M. WEIS BENTZON

The Tuberculosis and Biostatistical Departments, Statens Seruminstitut, Copenhagen, Denmark

Baess, I. & Bentzon, M. Weis. Deoxyribonucleic acid hybridization between different species of mycobacteria. Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B. 86 71-76 1978.

The homology percentages between DNA from *M. smegmatis* ATCC 607 and DNA from some various species of mycobacteria have been determined. DNA-DNA hybridization was measured in a spectrophotometer. The technique, calculation of results and the uncertainty of the method are described.

Key words: Nucleic acid hybridization, mycobacterium, classification, regression analysis.

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Accepted as submitted 21 x 77

Throughout several decades numerous strains of mycobacteria, both pathogenic and non-pathogenic for man and animals, have been isolated and given names in many countries. Much work has been done in examining these bacteria and much effort has been made to coordinate the results of the various laboratories on an international basis, for instance, the results of biochemical tests. There are still many unclarified questions as regards the taxonomy of the mycobacteria, and divergent opinions and doubts still exist concerning the species status of a number of strains.

It can be assumed that DNA-DNA hybridization between different mycobacteria can provide definite solutions to these problems. A method has therefore been developed with this object in view. In order to avoid radioactive labelling of the DNA, we chose to measure the hybridization kinetics optically in a spectrophotometer. The method is a modification of Bradley's (1973) method, the principle of which originates from Sedler & Mandel (1971).

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Bacterial strains. The strains used for DNA isolation are listed in Table 1.

TABLE 1. Strains Used for Isolation of DNA

| | Copenhagen |
|----------------------------|------------|
| <i>M. bovis</i> BCG | ATCC 12478 |
| <i>M. fortuitum</i> | ATCC 927 |
| <i>M. mageritense</i> | ATCC 14470 |
| <i>M. goodii</i> | ATCC 25291 |
| <i>M. avium</i> | ATCC 25158 |
| <i>M. paratuberculosis</i> | ATCC 607 |
| <i>M. smegmatis</i> | No. 108 |
| <i>M. phlei</i> | ATCC 27084 |
| <i>M. fortuitum</i> | ATCC 9320 |

Isolation and purification of DNA. The method of the mechanical disruption of the bacteria, the slight modification of Marston's method of isolation of the DNA and the purification of DNA with cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB) have been described previously (Baess 1974).

Probably the mutant *B. licheniformis* AL has a reduced capacity to synthesize leucine and thus has a less fine control of internal leucine levels. This may explain why the addition of leucine markedly increases the growth rate of the mutant.

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| <i>M. goodii</i> | ATCC 14470 |
| <i>M. avium</i> | ATCC 25291 |
| <i>M. paraff</i> | ATCC 25158 |
| <i>M. smegmatis</i> | ATCC 607 |
| <i>M. szulgai</i> | No. 108 |
| <i>M. phlei</i> | ATCC 27086 |
| <i>M. fortuitum</i> | ATCC 9820 |

Isolation and purification of DNA. The method, the mechanical disruption of the bacteria, the slight modification of Marmur's method of isolation of the DNA and the purification of DNA with cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB) have been described previously (Baess 1974).

Accepted as submitted 21.5.77

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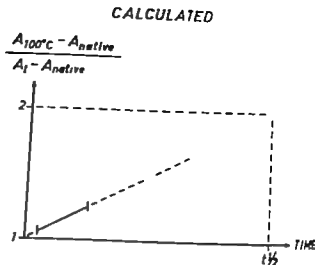
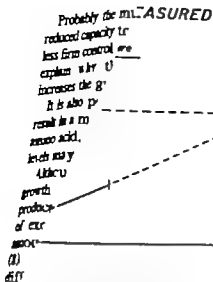


Fig. 1. Kinetics of the DNA-DNA hybridization.

A_t Absorbance measured at 270 nm of DNA in native condition, at 100°C at time 0 and at time t .

— Part of the experiment used for calculations.

Left side: Measured values.

Right side: Calculated values after extrapolation to A at time 0.

Shearing of DNA The DNA was sheared at a concentration of 800 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ in a French pressure cell press at 20 000 p.s.i. The sedimentation coefficient of the sheared DNA in 1 x SSC (0.15 M sodium chloride, 0.015 M trisodium citrate) was determined by analytical ultracentrifugation. From the extrapolated value

$$\left(\frac{S}{25^\circ\text{W}} \right)^{2.0}$$

a molecular weight of 681 000 daltons (± 5 per cent) was calculated (Crothers & Zimm 1965).

Hybridization The reassociation of two bacterial DNAs as compared with the hybridization of the mixture of these, was measured optically in a spectrophotometer. The $C_{ot} \frac{1}{2}$ of a DNA is defined by Britten & Kohne (1966) as the concentration of DNA in moles of nucleotides per l multiplied by the time in seconds required for 50 per cent reassociation. If two bacterial strains have identical DNAs, the $C_{ot} \frac{1}{2}$ of the mixture of their DNAs is the same as the $C_{ot} \frac{1}{2}$ of each single DNA. If two bacterial strains have no mutual DNA sequences, the $C_{ot} \frac{1}{2}$ of the mixture will be the sum of their $C_{ot} \frac{1}{2}$ s. This is described by Sedler & Mandel (1971) and expressed in their equation which is transformed by Bradley (1973) to homology percentage = $100 + 100 (C_{ot} \frac{1}{2} A + C_{ot} \frac{1}{2} B - 2 C_{ot} \frac{1}{2} M) / (C_{ot} \frac{1}{2} A + C_{ot} \frac{1}{2} B)$. A and B are the two bacteria to be compared and M the mixture.

After some preliminary experiments with salt concentrations from 1 to 6 SSC, DNA concentrations of about 10, 20 and 40 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$, and formamide concentrations of 25 and 50 per cent, we decided to perform the hybridizations with 40 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ DNA/ml in 3 SSC and 25 per cent formamide. Formamide is necessary in order to

reduce the temperature in the experiment. The hybridization temperature, 25°C below T_m , in the mixture used was about 60°C. T_m was determined each time a new combination of DNAs was used, and in the preliminary experiments, for the various concentrations of SSC and formamide. The temperature in each experiment was controlled by thermistor in a cuvette placed between the reference and the three DNAs, A, B and M.

After measurement of the concentration of the DNAs at 260 nm, the cuvettes were heated to between 99°C and 100°C and kept there for 15 minutes. The temperature was then changed as quickly as possible by changing to another oil bath adjusted beforehand to the hybridization temperature. When the temperature was reached, the absorbances were measured at 2 minute intervals. The absorbances in the hybridization experiments were measured at 270 nm because the influence of the formamide is less there than at 260 nm.

Calculation of the $C_{ot} \frac{1}{2}$ s and of the homology percentages between the DNA of two bacteria was made on the basis of the absorbances at room temperature and 100°C and the rate of absorbance decrease during hybridization. The second-order reaction plot of the experiment is shown in Fig. 1. The ordinate in the left hand part of the figure is

$$y_t = (A_{100^\circ\text{C}} - A_{\text{native}}) / (A_t - A_{\text{native}})$$

where A_t is the value read at time t . The time for the changeover to the oil bath with the hybridization temperature is chosen as $t = 0$. The curve is not correct, since $A_{100^\circ\text{C}}$ is different from A_0 , which corresponds to the absorbance of DNA at 25°C below T_m at time 0. This is due to the physical change in the DNAs as the temperature decreases. The slope of the line and the intercept at the y axis are determined by regression analysis (Dunn & Lentner 1971). These are designated by b_1 and a_{y1} respectively.

Probably the measured

reduced capacity to
less firm control over
explains why it
increases the growth
It is also possible

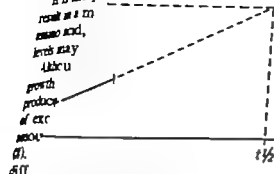


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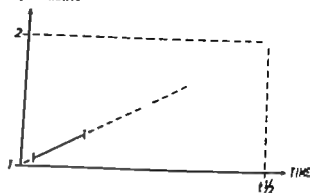
— Part of the experiment used for calculations.

Left side: Measured values.

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CALCULATED

$$\frac{A_{100^\circ\text{C}} - A_{\text{native}}}{A_t - A_{\text{native}}}$$



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a molecular weight of 681 000 daltons (± 5 per cent) was calculated (Crothers & Zimm 1965).

Hybridization The reassociation of two bacterial DNAs as compared with the hybridization of the mixture of these, was measured optically in a spectrophotometer. The $C_{ot} \frac{1}{2}$ of a DNA is defined by Britten & Kohne (1966) as the concentration of DNA in moles of nucleotides per l multiplied by the time in seconds required for 50 per cent reassociation. If two bacterial strains have identical DNAs, the $C_{ot} \frac{1}{2}$ of the mixture of their DNAs is the same as the $C_{ot} \frac{1}{2}$ of each single DNA. If two bacterial strains have no mutual DNA sequences, the $C_{ot} \frac{1}{2}$ of the mixture will be the sum of their $C_{ot} \frac{1}{2}$ s. This is described by Seidler & Mandel (1971) and expressed in their equation which is transformed by Bradley (1973) to: homology percentage = $100 + 100 (C_{ot} \frac{1}{2} A + C_{ot} \frac{1}{2} B - 2 C_{ot} \frac{1}{2} M) / (C_{ot} \frac{1}{2} A + C_{ot} \frac{1}{2} B)$. A and B are the two bacteria to be compared and M the mixture.

After some preliminary experiments with salt concentrations from 1 to 6 SSC, DNA concentrations of about 10–20 and 40 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ and formamide concentrations of 25 and 50 per cent, we decided to perform the hybridizations with 40 μg DNA/ml in 3 SSC and 25 per cent formamide. Formamide is necessary in order to

reduce the temperature in the experiment. The hybridization temperature, 25°C below T_m , in the mixture used was about 60°C. T_m was determined each time a new combination of DNAs was used, and in the preliminary experiments, for the various concentrations of SSC and formamide. The temperature in each experiment was controlled by thermistor in a cuvette placed between the reference and the three DNAs, A, B and M.

After measurement of the concentration of the DNAs at 260 nm, the cuvettes were heated to between 99°C and 100°C and kept there for 15 minutes. The temperature was then changed as quickly as possible by changing to another oil bath adjusted beforehand to the hybridization temperature. When the temperature was reached, the absorbances were measured at 2 minute intervals. The absorbances in the hybridization experiments were measured at 270 nm because the influence of the formamide is less there than at 260 nm.

Calculation of the $C_{ot} \frac{1}{2}$ s and of the homology percentages between the DNA of two bacteria was made on the basis of the absorbances at room temperature and 100°C and the rate of absorbance decrease during hybridization. The second-order reaction plot of the experiment is shown in Fig. 1. The ordinate in the left hand part of the figure is

$$y = (A_{100^\circ\text{C}} - A_{\text{native}}) / (A_t - A_{\text{native}})$$

where A_t is the value read at time t . The time for the changeover to the oil bath with the hybridization temperature is chosen as $t = 0$. The curve is not correct, since $A_{100^\circ\text{C}}$ is different from A_0 , which corresponds to the absorbance of DNA at 25°C below T_m at time 0. This is due to the physical change in the DNAs as the temperature decreases. The slope of the line and the intercept at the y axis are determined by regression analysis (Drenth & Levine 1971). These are designated b_1 and $a_{1/2}$, respectively.

Since y can be estimated by A_{260} , it applies that
 $A_{260} = y = (A_{100\%} - A_{\text{native}}) / (A_0 - A_{\text{native}})$
 which leads to an estimate of A_0 given by
 $A_0 - A_{\text{native}} = (A_{100\%} - A_{\text{native}}) / y$

$$\text{If } y = \frac{A_0 - A_{\text{native}}}{A - A_{\text{native}}} = \frac{y}{A_{260}}$$

plotted against t , the right-hand side of Fig. 1 is
 because The slope of this line becomes

$$\frac{b_{260}}{A_{260}}$$

and the intercept is now 1 The intercept of the line with
 1/2 is obtained at time

$$1/x = 1/\text{slope} = \frac{b_{260}}{A_{260}}$$

The concentration of the single-stranded DNA in
 moles of nucleotides per l is calculated from the
 absorbance at 260 nm at room temperature

$$\frac{A \times 50}{2 \times 331 \times 1000}$$

assuming that 50 μ g DNA/sol gives an absorbance of 1
 The mean molecular weight for a ribonucleotide is
 331

RESULTS

The ratios 260 nm/280 nm and 260 nm/230 nm
 of the DNAs isolated before and after CTAB
 treatment are shown in Tables 2 and 3 The
 preliminary reassociation and hybridization experi-
 ments at varying salt concentrations from 1 to 6
 SSC showed that the time for 50 per cent
 reassociation and consequently $C_{0t} \frac{1}{2}$ decreased
 about four-fold by increasing the salt concentration
 from 1 to 3 SSC (Table 4) The change in the salt
 concentration from 3 to 6 SSC caused a very slight
 decrease of $C_{0t} \frac{1}{2}$ but the homology percentage

TABLE 2

Species

| | |
|-----------------------|------|
| <i>M. boris</i> , BCG | |
| <i>M. kansasii</i> | |
| <i>M. marinum</i> | 1.44 |
| <i>M. goodii</i> | 1.60 |
| <i>M. avium</i> | 1.57 |
| <i>M. gastri</i> | 1.88 |
| <i>M. smegmatis</i> | |
| <i>M. phlei</i> | |
| <i>M. fortuitum</i> | 1.58 |
| <i>E. coli</i> B | 1.81 |

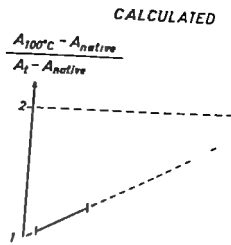
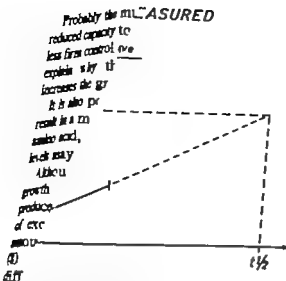
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TABLE 3 Ratio between Absorbance at 260 nm and
 260 nm/230 nm

| Species | 260 nm/230 nm | |
|-----------------------|---------------|------------|
| | Before CTAB | After CTAB |
| <i>M. boris</i> , BCG | — | 2.26 |
| <i>M. kansasii</i> | 1.28 | 2.20 |
| <i>M. marinum</i> | 1.44 | 2.24 |
| <i>M. goodii</i> | 1.20 | 2.20 |
| <i>M. avium</i> | 1.27 | 2.16 |
| <i>M. gastri</i> | 1.02 | 2.14 |
| <i>M. smegmatis</i> | 2.11 | 2.24 |
| <i>M. phlei</i> | — | 2.32 |
| <i>M. fortuitum</i> | 2.17 | 2.22 |
| <i>E. coli</i> B | 2.25 | 2.25 |

TABLE 4 Preliminary Results of DNA-DNA Hybridizations with Different Concentrations of DNA SSC in
 Formamide

| DNA μ g/ml | SSC conc | Formamide per cent | $C_{0t} \frac{1}{2}$ <i>M. phlei</i> | $C_{0t} \frac{1}{2}$ <i>M. smegmatis</i> | $C_{0t} \frac{1}{2}$ BCG | Homology per cent |
|-------------------|-------------|-----------------------|---|---|-----------------------------|----------------------|
| 40 | 6 | 25 | | 0.904 | 0.447 | 30.8 |
| 40 | 4 | 25 | | 1.009 | 0.612 | 17.7 |
| 40 | 3 | 25 | | 0.978 | 0.576 | 8.9 |
| 40 | 2 | 25 | | 1.704 | 0.966 | 5.7 |
| 40 | 1 | 25 | | 4.094 | 2.151 | 9.2 |
| 40 | 6 | 30 | | 1.467 | 0.907 | 31.6 |
| 40 | 3 | 25 | 0.914 | | | |
| 70 | 3 | 25 | 0.934 | | | |
| 10 | 3 | 25 | 0.955 | | | |



are 1 Kinetics of the DNA DNA hybridization

A_t : Absorbance measured at 270 nm of DNA in native condition, at 100°C at time 0 and

$A_{100°C}$: Part of the experiment used for calculations.

Left side: Measured values.

Right side: Calculated values after extrapolation to A at time 0

Shearing of DNA The DNA was sheared at a concentration of 800 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ in a French pressure cell press at 20 000 p.s.i. The sedimentation coefficient of the sheared DNA in 1 x SSC (0.15 M sodium chloride, 0.015 M trisodium citrate) was determined by analytical ultracentrifugation. From the extrapolated value

$$\left(\frac{C}{C_0} \right)^{0.5}$$

25 w

a molecular weight of 681 000 daltons (± 5 per cent) was calculated (Croukers & Zimm 1965)

Hybridization The reassociation of two bacterial DNAs as compared with the hybridization of the mixture of these, was measured optically in a spectrophotometer. The $C_{ot} 1/2$ of a DNA is defined by Britten & Kohne (1966) as the concentration of DNA in moles of nucleotides per l multiplied by the time in seconds required for 50 per cent reassociation. If two bacterial strains have identical DNAs, the $C_{ot} 1/2$ of the mixture of their DNAs is the same as the $C_{ot} 1/2$ of each single DNA. If two bacterial strains have no mutual DNA sequences, the $C_{ot} 1/2$ of the mixture will be the sum of their $C_{ot} 1/2$ s. This is described by Seidler & Mandel (1971) and expressed in their equation which is transformed by Bradley (1973) to homology percentage = $100 + 100 (C_{ot} 1/2 A + C_{ot} 1/2 B - 2 C_{ot} 1/2 M) / (C_{ot} 1/2 A + C_{ot} 1/2 B)$. A and B are the two bacteria to be compared and M the mixture.

After some preliminary experiments with salt concentrations from 1 to 6 SSC, DNA concentrations of about 10, 20 and 40 $\mu\text{g/ml}$, and formamide concentrations of 25 and 50 per cent, we decided to perform the hybridizations with 40 $\mu\text{g DNA/ml}$ in 3 SSC and 25 per cent formamide. Formamide is necessary in order to

reduce the temperature in the hybridization temperature, 25°C below was about 60°C. T_m was combination of DNAs was experiments, for the var formamide. The temperature controlled by thermostat in reference and the three DN

After measurement of at 260 nm, the cuvettes were at 100°C and kept there for 1 was then changed as quickly another oil bath adjusted to temperature. When the ten absorbances were measured at absorbances in the hybridization measured at 270 nm because formamide is less than at

Calculation of the $C_{ot} 1/2$ s as percentages between the DNA of on the basis of the absorbances at 100°C, and the rate of absorption hybridization. The second-order experiment is shown in Fig 1. The hand part of the figure is

$$y_t = (A_{100°C} - A_{native}) / (A_t - A_{native})$$

where A_t is the value read at time t changeover to the oil bath with t temperature is chosen as $t = 0$. The curves $A_{100°C}$ is different from A_{native} , which the absorbance of DNA at 25°C below. This is due to the physical change in the temperature decreases. The slope of the t intercept at the y axis are determined by analysis (Dion & Lerner 1971). These are a_0 and $a_{1/2}$, respectively.

Since y can be estimated by a_{260} , it follows that
 $a_{260} = y = (A_{1600C} - A_{1600A}) / (A_{260} - A_{260A})$
 which leads to an estimate of A_{260} given by
 $A_{260} - A_{260A} = (A_{1600C} - A_{1600A}) / a_{260}$

$$1/y = \frac{A_{260} - A_{260A}}{A_{1600C} - A_{1600A}} = \frac{y}{a_{260}}$$

is plotted against x , the right-hand side of Fig. 1 is obtained. The slope of this line becomes

$$\frac{b_{260}}{b_{260}}$$

and the intercept is now 1. The intercept of the line with $y = 2$ is obtained at time

$$t_x = 1/\text{slope} = \frac{a_{260}}{b_{260}}$$

The concentration of the single-stranded DNA in moles of nucleotides per l is calculated from the absorbance at 260 nm at room temperature

$$\frac{A \times 50}{2 \times 331 \times 1000}$$

assuming that 50 μ g DNA/ml gives an absorbance of 1. The mean molecular weight for a nucleoside nucleotide is 331.

RESULTS

The ratios 260 nm/280 nm and 260 nm/230 nm of the DNAs isolated before and after CTAB treatment are shown in Tables 2 and 3. The preliminary reassociation and hybridization experiments at varying salt concentrations from 1 to 6 SSC showed that the time for 50 per cent reassociation and consequently $C_{ot} 1/2$ decreased about four-fold by increasing the salt concentration from 1 to 3 SSC (Table 4). The change in the salt concentration from 3 to 6 SSC caused a very slight decrease of $C_{ot} 1/2$ but the homology percentage

TABLE 2. Ratio between Absorbance at 260 nm and 280 nm of the DNA before and after CTAB Treatment

| Species | 260 nm/280 nm | |
|------------------------|---------------|------------|
| | Before CTAB | After CTAB |
| <i>M. luteus</i> , BCG | 1.86 | 1.88 |
| <i>M. luteus</i> | 1.69 | 1.88 |
| <i>M. maritimus</i> | 1.73 | 1.89 |
| <i>M. goodii</i> | 1.65 | 1.88 |
| <i>M. arifum</i> | 1.68 | 1.87 |
| <i>M. pastor</i> | 1.57 | 1.88 |
| <i>M. smegmatis</i> | 1.88 | 1.92 |
| <i>M. phlei</i> | — | 1.89 |
| <i>M. fortuitum</i> | 1.88 | 1.86 |
| <i>E. coli</i> B | 1.81 | 1.81 |

TABLE 3. Ratio between Absorbance at 260 nm and 230 nm of the DNA before and after CTAB Treatment

| Species | 260 nm/230 nm | |
|------------------------|---------------|------------|
| | Before CTAB | After CTAB |
| <i>M. luteus</i> , BCG | — | 2.26 |
| <i>M. luteus</i> | 1.18 | 2.20 |
| <i>M. maritimus</i> | 1.44 | 2.24 |
| <i>M. goodii</i> | 1.20 | 2.20 |
| <i>M. arifum</i> | 1.27 | 2.16 |
| <i>M. pastor</i> | 1.02 | 1.4 |
| <i>M. smegmatis</i> | 2.11 | 4 |
| <i>M. phlei</i> | — | — |
| <i>M. fortuitum</i> | 2.17 | 2.2 |
| <i>E. coli</i> B | 2.25 | 2.25 |

TABLE 4. Preliminary Results of DNA-DNA Hybridizations with Different Concentrations of DNA, SSC and Formamide

| DNA μ g/ml | SSC conc. | Formamide per cent | $C_{ot} 1/2$ <i>M. phlei</i> | $C_{ot} 1/2$ <i>M. smegmatis</i> | $C_{ot} 1/2$ BCG | Homology per cent |
|----------------|-----------|--------------------|------------------------------|----------------------------------|------------------|-------------------|
| 40 | 6 | 25 | | 0.904 | 0.447 | 30.8 |
| 40 | 4 | 25 | | 1.009 | 0.612 | 17.2 |
| 40 | 3 | 25 | | 0.978 | 0.576 | 8.9 |
| 40 | 2 | 25 | | 1.704 | 0.966 | 5.7 |
| 40 | 1 | 25 | | 4.094 | 2.151 | 9.2 |
| 40 | 6 | 50 | | 1.467 | 0.907 | 31.6 |
| 40 | 3 | 25 | 0.914 | | | |
| 20 | 3 | 25 | 0.934 | | | |
| 10 | 3 | 25 | 0.955 | | | |

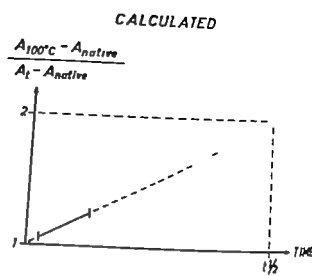
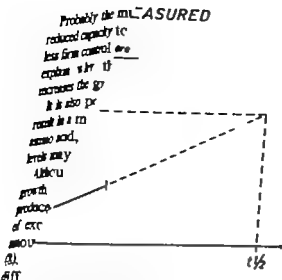


Fig. 1. Kinetics of the DNA DNA hybridization
 A_t Absorbance measured at 270 nm of DNA in native condition, at 100°C, at time 0 and at time t
 — Part of the experiment used for calculations.
 Left side: Measured values.
 Right side: Calculated values after extrapolation to A at time 0

Shearing of DNA The DNA was sheared at a concentration of 800 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ in a French pressure cell press at 20 000 p.s.i. The sedimentation coefficient of the sheared DNA in 1 x SSC (0.15 M sodium chloride, 0.015 M trisodium citrate) was determined by analytical ultracentrifugation. From the extrapolated value

$$(\text{S}^{c=0})_{25^\circ\text{W}}$$

reduce the temperature in the experiment. The hybridization temperature, 25°C below T_m , in the mixture used was about 60°C. T_m was determined each time a new combination of DNAs was used and in the preliminary experiments, for the various concentrations of SSC and formamide. The temperature in each experiment was controlled by thermostat in a cuvette placed between the reference and the three DNAs, A, B and M.

After measurement of the concentration of the DNAs at 260 nm, the cuvettes were heated to between 99°C and 100°C and kept there for 15 minutes. The temperature was then changed as quickly as possible by changing to another oil bath adjusted beforehand to the hybridization temperature. When the temperature was reached, the absorbances were measured at 2 minute intervals. The absorbances in the hybridization experiments were measured at 270 nm because the influence of the formamide is less there than at 260 nm.

Calculation of the Cot 's and of the homology percentages between the DNA of two bacteria was made on the basis of the absorbances at room temperature and 100°C and the rate of absorbance decrease during hybridization. The second-order reaction plot of the experiment is shown in Fig. 1. The ordinate in the left hand part of the figure is

$$y_t = (A_{100^\circ\text{C}} - A_{native}) / (A_t - A_{native})$$

where A_t is the value read at time t. The time for the changeover to the oil bath with the hybridization temperature is chosen as $t = 0$. The curve is not correct, since $A_{100^\circ\text{C}}$ is different from A_{∞} which corresponds to the absorbance of DNA at 25°C below T_m at time 0. This is due to the physical change in the DNAs as the temperature decreases. The slope of the line and the intercept at the y axis are determined by regression analysis (Dien & Lentner 1971). These are designated by b_1 and a_1 , respectively.

a molecular weight of 681 000 daltons (± 5 per cent) was calculated (Crothers & Zimm 1965).

Hybridization The reassociation of two bacterial DNAs as compared with the hybridization of the mixture of these, was measured optically in a spectrophotometer. The Cot of a DNA is defined by Britten & Kohne (1966) as the concentration of DNA in moles of nucleotides per l multiplied by the time in seconds required for 50 per cent reassociation. If two bacterial strains have identical DNAs, the Cot of the mixture of their DNAs is the same as the Cot of each single DNA. If two bacterial strains have no mutual DNA sequences, the Cot of the mixture will be the sum of their Cot 's. This is described by Seidler & Mandel (1971) and expressed in their equation which is transformed by Bradley (1973) to homology percentage = $100 + 100 (Cot \frac{1}{2} A + Cot \frac{1}{2} B - 2 Cot \frac{1}{2} M) / (Cot \frac{1}{2} A + Cot \frac{1}{2} B)$. A and B are the two bacteria to be compared and M the mixture.

After some preliminary experiments with salt concentrations from 1 to 6 SSC, DNA concentrations of about 10, 20 and 40 $\mu\text{g/ml}$, and formamide concentrations of 25 and 50 per cent, we decided to perform the hybridizations with 40 $\mu\text{g DNA/ml}$ in 3 SSC and 25 per cent formamide. Formamide is necessary in order to

The average \bar{y} generally lies near 1.3 (start near 1.2, end y near $1.2 + 0.2 = 1.4$)
 Since

$$\frac{\bar{y}}{H} = t_X + \bar{E}$$

the relative variance of t_X , $V\{t_X\}/t_X^2$ becomes

$$(6) \frac{\sigma^2}{n} (0.6 + 12 \frac{n-1}{n+1} 25) (1 + \frac{\bar{E}}{t_X})^2$$

The ratio \bar{E}/t_X lies near 0.3 in the majority of the experiments. With $n = 8$ the right-hand side then becomes

$$(7) \frac{\sigma^2}{n} (0.6 + 233) = 1.3^2$$

The relative variance of t_Y is clearly dominated by the contribution originating from the uncertainty of the slope (compare 233 against 0.6 in (7)). This agrees with the fact that extrapolation for t_X is made on the basis of part of the line.

The formulas for the variance are derived on the assumption that the values observed for y (i.e. A_1) are statistically independent. This can hardly be correct for observations taken at such short time intervals. With intervals of 2 minutes there is no immediate sign of dependence on the plots for the individual experiments, but a numerical control can be made by taking the means of three y values at a time (i.e. $\bar{y} = (y_1 + y_2 + y_3)/3$, $\bar{y} = (y_4 + y_5 + y_6)/3$, etc.) and using these values in the regression calculation. This has been done for 19 of the experiments. In many of the experiments there are 24 y values for A and B and 36 for M , i.e. 8 averages for A and B and 12 for M . Calculations with the individual values give an estimate of σ^2 at about 25×10^{-6} for A , B and M .

For the means $\sigma^2 \approx 11 \times 10^{-6}$. This is greater than the $\bar{y} \times 25 \times 10^{-6}$ which could be expected on the assumption of independence, thus indicating a weakly positive correlation. If the means are used instead of individual values, there is no need for further correction for correlation. The variance corresponding to $\sigma^2 \approx 11 \times 10^{-6}$ and $n = 8$ for A and B is then

$$\frac{V\{t\}}{(t)^2} = 5.43 \cdot 10^{-4}$$

or a relative standard deviation of 0.023 (2.3 per cent).

The relative standard deviation of t_Y is the same for A , B and M , if n is the same. It is assumed in the calculations that there is no error in \bar{E} . If this is the

case because of uncertainty in the contributions of the error \bar{E} correlated

reaction in the latter bands remained and three b of

A , B and M are all determined by the same density of concentration. The relative variance of t_X is due to be approximated as the sum of the variances of t_X and C_0 separately. If the relative variance of C_0 is considerably less than 2.3 per cent, the results, ignored, otherwise it cannot.

Thus we know that as \bar{E} increases, the relative error of 2.3 per cent then is the variance of H .

$$V\{H\} = (200^2) \times \left(\frac{M}{A+B} \right)^2 \left(\frac{V\{M\}}{M^2} + \frac{V\{A+B\}}{(A+B)^2} \right)$$

This is therefore the minimum uncertainty of H .

If it is assumed that $n = 8$ for A and B , one can take $n = 8$ for M when H is near 100 (M near $(A+B)/2$) and $n = 16$ for M when H is near 0 (M near $A+B$). Taking this into account, $SD(H) = \sqrt{V\{H\}} = 2.4$ per cent for H near 0 and 1.4 per cent for H near 100. Examination of the variations from experiment to experiment shows that $SD \sim 5.5$ per cent. This means that the variance is more than five times greater than the contribution from the variation about the line, and therefore very little is won by using more frequent readings (more points) unless the other variance contributions can be reduced.

DISCUSSION

The advantage of optical measurement of DNA-DNA reassociation is that one can avoid radioactive labelling of the DNA and problems with the leaching of DNA from the filters in reassociation on membrane filters. The disadvantage with optical measurement is that only one homology percentage can be determined at a time.

The method used here has proved to be satisfactory in practice. The mean standard deviation for determination of the homology percentages is 5.5 per cent. The calculations have shown that the variance of t_Y is only about one-fifth of the total variance. Presumably the remainder lies primarily in the concentration determinations. These are difficult because several small volumes have to be mixed. Particularly the addition of formamide is a problem since formamide affects the measurement at 260 nm. Furthermore, transfer from one cuvette to another can involve a change in the absorbance for no apparent reason. We were not able to perform the diphenylamine reaction for determination of the DNA concentration of the final mixture of DNA, presumably because of the presence of formamide.

rose. However the homology percentage remained constant at salt concentrations from 1 to 3 SSC. Deviation from the second order reaction kinetics after some time was more pronounced at 6 SSC. It must be assumed that the homology percentage measured at the lower salt concentrations is the most correct.

The addition of 50 per cent formamide instead of 25 per cent increased the reassociation time considerably but had no effect on the homology percentage.

In order to achieve a reasonable rate of reassociation and at the same time avoid a presumably too high homology percentage, 3 SSC and 25 per cent formamide were chosen for subsequent experiments.

Experiments with the DNA of the same bacteria in concentrations of approximately 10, 20 and 40 µg/ml in 3 SSC and 25 per cent formamide resulted in unchanged $C_{0t} \frac{1}{2}$. In order to obtain the largest possible distance between A_0 and A_{reassoc} 40 µg/ml was chosen, since the largest possible absorbance decrease per time during the course of the experiment must give the greatest accuracy in the determination of $t \frac{1}{2}$.

The homology percentages of *M. smegmatis* ATCC 607 as compared with nine different species of mycobacteria are shown in Table 5. Each value represents the mean of four experiments. The homology percentage between the two *M. smegmatis* strains is high. There is a low degree of homology between *M. smegmatis* and the other two rapidly growing mycobacteria, and almost no homology between *M. smegmatis* and the slowly growing mycobacteria.

TABLE 5 Homology Percentages of the DNA of *M. smegmatis* ATCC 607 as Compared with the DNA of Nine Different Species of Mycobacteria

| Species | Per cent homology with <i>M. smegmatis</i> ATCC 607 | Standard deviation |
|----------------------------|---|--------------------|
| <i>M. bovis</i> , BCG | 11.3 | 6.1 |
| <i>M. kansasii</i> | 13.9 | 4.8 |
| <i>M. marinum</i> | 11.7 | 5.2 |
| <i>M. goodii</i> | 3.4 | 7.7 |
| <i>M. avium</i> | 13.2 | 5.2 |
| <i>M. paratuberculosis</i> | 8.8 | 6.8 |
| <i>M. gastri</i> | 96.5 | 4.2 |
| <i>M. smegmatis</i> | 29.9 | 4.4 |
| <i>M. phlei</i> | 23.3 | 4.2 |
| <i>M. fortuitum</i> | | |

Examination of the Statistical Uncertainty in Determination of Homology Percentages

The homology percentage (H) is determined as stated under MATERIAL AND METHODS. The formula given there can be written

$$H = 200 \left(1 - \frac{M}{A + B} \right) \text{ where}$$

$$A = (t_X \text{ for } A) \quad C_0 \text{ for } A$$

$$B = (t_X \text{ for } B) \quad C_0 \text{ for } B$$

$$M = (t_X \text{ for } M) \quad C_0 \text{ for } M$$

The first problem is to find the variance of the t_X determinations.

As mentioned previously

$$(1) t_X = \frac{a_{t_X}}{b_{t_X}} = \frac{\bar{y} - b_{t_X} \bar{t}}{b_{t_X}} = \frac{\bar{y}}{b_{t_X}} - \bar{t} = \frac{\bar{y}}{b} - \bar{t}$$

where $b = b_{t_X}$ (Diem & Lerner 1971)

According to the regression analysis theory the variance of t_X is

$$(2) V[t_X] = V\left[\frac{\bar{y}}{b}\right] = \frac{\sigma^2}{b^2} \left(\frac{1}{n} + \left(\frac{\bar{y}}{b}\right)^2 \frac{1}{S_1} \right)$$

where σ is the standard deviation corresponding to the variation about the line and $S_1 = \sum (t - \bar{t})^2$ while n is the number of values observed.

In the experiments, recording is made at equidistant time intervals of length ω (usually 2 minutes). The S_1 can therefore be calculated by the formula.

$$(3) S_1 = n \frac{n^2 - 1}{12} \omega^2$$

Since the slope must lie near $\Delta y / \Delta t$

$$(4) b \sim \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta t} = \frac{\Delta y}{(n-1)\omega} \quad \text{or } \omega = \frac{\Delta y}{(n-1)b}$$

where Δy is the total change in y

Insertion in formula (2) gives

$$(5) V[t_X] = \left(\frac{\bar{y}}{b}\right)^2 \frac{\sigma^2}{b^2} \left(\frac{b^2}{n\bar{y}^2} + \frac{12(n-1)^2}{n(n-1)} \frac{b^2}{(\Delta y)^2} \right) \\ = \left(\frac{\bar{y}}{b}\right)^2 \frac{\sigma^2}{n} \left(\frac{1}{\bar{y}^2} + 12 \frac{n-1}{n+1} \frac{1}{(\Delta y)^2} \right)$$

It has been shown that the rectilinear part of the curve in Fig. 1 corresponded to a total change in y of 0.20 for both A II and M (with homology percentages near 0 twice as long an observation time for M is required).

The average \bar{y} generally lies near 1.3 (start near 1.2, end y near $1.2 + 0.2 = 1.4$). Since

$$\frac{\bar{y}}{b} = t_K + \bar{t}$$

the relative variance of t_K $V(t_K) / t_K^2$ becomes:

$$6) = \frac{\sigma^2}{n} (0.6 + 12 \frac{n-1}{n+1} 25) (1 + \frac{\bar{t}}{t_K})^2$$

The ratio \bar{t}/t_K lies near 0.3 in the majority of the experiments. With $n = 8$ the right-hand side then becomes:

$$(7) \frac{\sigma^2}{n} (0.6 + 233) = 1.3^2$$

The relative variance of t_K is clearly dominated by the contribution originating from the uncertainty of the slope (compare 233 against 0.6 in (7)). This agrees with the fact that extrapolation for t_K is made on the basis of part of the line.

The formulas for the variance are derived on the assumption that the values observed for y (i.e. A_i) are statistically independent. This can hardly be correct for observations taken at such short time intervals. With intervals of 2 minutes there is no immediate sign of dependence on the plots for the individual experiments, but a statistical control can be made by taking the means of three y values at a time (i.e. $\bar{y} = (y_1 + y_2 + y_3) / 3$, etc.) and using these values in the regression calculation. This has been done for 19 of the experiments. In many of the experiments there are 24 y values for A and B and 36 for M , i.e. 8 averages for A and B and 12 for M . Calculations with the individual values give an estimate of σ^2 at about 25×10^{-6} for A , B and M .

For the means $\sigma^2 \approx 11 \times 10^{-6}$. This is greater than the $\bar{y} \times 25 \times 10^{-6}$ which could be expected on the assumption of independence, thus indicating a weakly positive correlation. If the means are used instead of individual values, there is no need for further correction for correlation. The variance corresponding to $\sigma^2 \approx 11 \times 10^{-6}$ and $n = 8$ for A and B is then

$$\frac{V(t_K)}{(t_K)^2} = 5.43 \cdot 10^{-4}$$

or a relative standard deviation of 0.023 (2.3 per cent).

The relative standard deviation of t_K is the same for A , B and M if n is the same. It is assumed in the calculations that there is no error in \bar{t} . If this is the

case began contribution correlat.

A B and M are concentrations. The be approximated as the of t_K and C_0 separately ignored, otherwise it

Thus we know that as work with a relative error of then is the variance of H

$$V(H) = (200^2) \times \left(\frac{M}{A+B} \right)^2 \left(\frac{V(M)}{M^2} \right)$$

This is therefore the minimum un

If it is assumed that $n = 8$ for A and B , take $n = 8$ for M when H is near 100 $(A+B)/M$ and $n = 16$ for M when H is near $A+B$. Taking this into account, $SD(\sqrt{V(H)}) = 2.4$ per cent for H near 0 and 1.4 per cent for H near 100. Examination of the variations from experiment to experiment shows that $SD \sim 5.5$ per cent. This means that the variance is more than five times greater than the contribution from the variation about the line, and therefore very little is won by using more frequent readings (more points) unless the other variance contributions can be reduced.

DISCUSSION

The advantage of optical measurement of DNA-DNA reassociation is that one can avoid radioactive labelling of the DNA and problems with the leaching of DNA from the filters in reassociation on membrane filters. The disadvantage with optical measurement is that only one homology percentage can be determined at a time.

The method used here has proved to be satisfactory in practice. The mean standard deviation for determination of the homology percentages is 5.5 per cent. The calculations have shown that the variance of t_K is only about one-fifth of the total variance. Presumably the remainder lies primarily in the concentration determinations. These are difficult because several small volumes have to be mixed. Particularly the addition of formamide is a problem, since formamide affects the measurement at 260 nm. Furthermore, transfer from one cuvette to another can involve a change in the absorbance for no apparent reason. We were not able to perform the diphenylamine reaction for determination of the DNA concentration of the final mixture of DNA, presumably because of the presence of formamide.

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me. However the homology percentage remained constant at salt concentrations from 1 to 3 SSC. Deviation from the second order reaction kinetics after some time was more pronounced at 6 SSC. It must be assumed that the homology percentage measured at the lower salt concentrations is the most correct.

The addition of 50 per cent formamide instead of 25 per cent increased the reassociation time considerably but had no effect on the homology percentage.

In order to achieve a reasonable rate of reassociation and at the same time avoid a presumably too high homology percentage, 3 SSC and 25 per cent formamide were chosen for subsequent experiments.

Experiments with the DNA of the same bacteria in concentrations of approximately 10, 20 and 40 µg/ml in 3 SSC and 25 per cent formamide resulted in unchanged $C_0t_{1/2}$. In order to obtain the largest possible distance between A_0 and A_{unbound} 40 µg/ml was chosen, since the largest possible absorbance decrease per time during the course of the experiment must give the greatest accuracy in the determination of $t_{1/2}$.

The homology percentages of *M. smegmatis* ATCC 607 as compared with nine different species of mycobacteria are shown in Table 5. Each value represents the mean of four experiments. The homology percentage between the two *M. smegmatis* strains is high. There is a low degree of homology between *M. smegmatis* and the other two rapidly growing mycobacteria, and almost no homology between *M. smegmatis* and the slowly growing mycobacteria.

TABLE 5 Homology Percentages of the DNA of *M. smegmatis* ATCC 607 as Compared with the DNA of Nine Different Species of Mycobacteria

| Species | Per cent homology with <i>M. smegmatis</i> ATCC 607 | Standard deviation |
|---------------------|---|--------------------|
| <i>M. bovis</i> BCG | 11.3 | 6.1 |
| <i>M. kansasii</i> | 13.9 | 4.8 |
| <i>M. marinum</i> | 11.7 | 5.2 |
| <i>M. goodii</i> | 3.4 | 7.7 |
| <i>M. arbutum</i> | 13.2 | 5.2 |
| <i>M. gastri</i> | 8.8 | 6.8 |
| <i>M. smegmatis</i> | 96.5 | 4.2 |
| <i>M. phlei</i> | 29.9 | 4.4 |
| <i>M. fortuitum</i> | 23.3 | 4.2 |

Examination of the Statistical Uncertainty in Determination of Homology Percentages

The homology percentage (H) is determined as stated under MATERIAL AND METHODS. The formula given there can be written

$$H = 200 \left(1 - \frac{M}{A + B} \right) \text{ where}$$

$$A = (t_X \text{ for } A) \quad C_0 \text{ for } A$$

$$B = (t_X \text{ for } B) \quad C_0 \text{ for } B$$

$$M = (t_X \text{ for } M) \quad C_0 \text{ for } M$$

The first problem is to find the variance of the $t_{1/2}$ determinations.

As mentioned previously

$$(1) t_X = \frac{a_{tX}}{b_{tX}} = \frac{\bar{y} - b_{tX} \bar{t}}{b_{tX}} = \frac{\bar{y}}{b_{tX}} - \bar{t} = \frac{\bar{y}}{b} - \bar{t}$$

where $b = b_{tX}$ (Dien & Lenner 1971).

According to the regression analysis theory the variance of t_X is

$$(2) V\{t_X\} = V\left\{\frac{\bar{y}}{b}\right\} = \frac{\sigma^2}{b^2} \left(\frac{1}{n} + \left(\frac{\bar{y}}{b}\right)^2 \frac{1}{S_1} \right)$$

where σ is the standard deviation corresponding to the variation about the line and $S_1 = \sum (t - \bar{t})^2$ while n is the number of values observed.

In the experiments, recording is made at equidistant time intervals of length ω (usually 2 minutes). The S_1 can therefore be calculated by the formula

$$(3) S_1 = n \frac{n^2 - 1}{12} \omega^2$$

Since the slope must lie near $\Delta y / \Delta t$

$$(4) b \sim \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta t} = \frac{\Delta y}{(n-1)\omega} \quad \text{or } \omega = \frac{\Delta y}{(n-1)b}$$

where Δy is the total change in y

Insertion in formula (2) gives

$$(5) V\{t_X\} = \left(\frac{\bar{y}}{b}\right)^2 \frac{\sigma^2}{b^2} \left(\frac{b^2}{n\bar{y}^2} + \frac{12(n-1)^2}{n(n^2-1)} \frac{b^2}{(\Delta y)^2} \right) \\ = \left(\frac{\bar{y}}{b}\right)^2 \frac{\sigma^2}{n} \left(\frac{1}{\bar{y}^2} + 12 \frac{n-1}{n+1} \frac{1}{(\Delta y)^2} \right)$$

It has been shown that the rectilinear part of the curve in Fig. 1 corresponded to a total change in y of 0.20 for both A, B and M (with homology percentages near 11 twice as long an observation time for M is required).

DENSITY GRADIENT CENTRIFUGATION IN UROGRAFIN OF *MORAXELLA* AND *KIEGELIA* CELLS AND APPENDAGES

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Frøholm, L. O. & Bøvre, K. Density gradient centrifugation in Urografin of *Moraxella* and *Kiegelia* cells and appendages. Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B 86: 77-86, 1978.

Purification of fimbriae (pili) by density gradient banding in Urografin medium was attempted. *Moraxella nonliquefaciens* and *Kiegelia kroyeri* fimbriae were of higher density than their cells of origin, but fimbrial fractions obtained by homogenization and differential centrifugation still banded together with pronounced outer membrane fragments and some whole cells in Urografin gradients. The cellular density of genetic variants with different fimbriation/competence levels was also studied. For one strain of *M. nonliquefaciens* and two strains of *K. kroyeri* cells harvested from agar plates tended to show several bands on isopycnic density gradient centrifugation, with slightly higher general density of fimbriated variants than non-fimbriated. A single density band could be observed with cells from log phase broth cultures of selected strains which showed no distinct difference between fimbriation or competence variants of each strain. Cells of *M. nonliquefaciens* and *M. bovis* showed comparable buoyant densities, whereas those of *K. kroyeri* had a higher density.

Key words: Buoyant density of bacteria, isopycnic gradient centrifugation, cellular fractionation, fimbriae pili, *Moraxella kroyeri*, Urografin.

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Previous studies in our laboratories have demonstrated several differences between fimbriated and non-fimbriated or sparsely fimbriated variants of *Moraxella kroyeri* and *Aeromonas* (1, 2, 8, 9, 11, 12, 19). (See also ref. 18). One important finding was a correlation between fimbriation and competence in genetic transformation (2).

The present paper describes the physical properties of fimbriae and cells of fimbriated and non-fimbriated variants of *Moraxella* and *Kiegelia* in Urografin gradients, and gives a report of attempts to purify fimbriae by use of such gradients. Urografin was chosen for density gradient experiments because it had been used previously for the

separation of pure flagella (6). It would also permit studies with living cells (17, 23, 25) and comparison with studies in *Bacillus subtilis*. In this species, physiologically competent variants were of lower density than the culture as a whole (4, 11, 21).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial strains. *Moraxella nonliquefaciens* 4663/62 N-b and SC-a, and NCTC 7784 N-b and SC-a, *M. bovis* 4 N-b and SC-a, and 5 N-a and SC-b, and *Kiegelia kroyeri* (13) 4177/66 N-b and SC-a, and A1702 N-a and SC-a, have all been included in previous investigations on fimbriation and associated characters (1, 2, 8, 9, 12, 19). *M. nonliquefaciens* 7784 SC-c originated as a highly

Six of the measured homology percentages can be compared with corresponding values determined by Bradley (1972, 1973) and Gross & Wayne (1970). The results are similar but four of Bradley's homology percentages are somewhat higher than ours. These are the homology percentages between *M. smegmatis* and BCG-11.3 and from 12-24 *M. mageritense* 11.7 and 19 *M. phlei* 29.9 and 45 and *M. fortuitum* 23.3 and 37, the highest values being Bradley's results. The difference between the methods used is that Bradley uses a higher salt concentration, and he does not mention whether he has purified his DNA for polysaccharides. Polysaccharides are apparently a common problem in the production of DNA from mycobacteria, since they were also found by Hill *et al.* (1972), even though they used a completely different method.

The preliminary experiments in the present work showed also an increasing homology percentage when the salt concentration became higher than 3 SSC. Thus the difference between Bradley's and the present results may be explained by the difference in the salt concentrations *viz.* 6 SSC and 3 SSC. It might be that non-specific base-pairing is obtained by using 6 SSC which is avoided at 3 SSC. This aspect has not been examined.

After development of the method, it is intended to use it in solving special problems within the field of mycobacterial taxonomy.

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Grateful thanks are due to *Bendt Marasa*, Statens SerumInstitut for performing the molecular weight determinations.

electron microscopy Cells and fimbriae as TS or PBS suspensions were sedimented by centrifugation of 0.2 ml suspensions in a Micro centrifuge (Ole Dich, Hvidovre) at $4,000 \times g$ for one and ten min, respectively. The pellets were suspended in 0.02 ml 0.8 per cent SST and transferred to grids for electron microscopy (1). Samples from Urografin gradients were usually diluted two to four-fold in distilled water and either centrifuged in the Micro centrifuge, washed once in negative stain solution, and pellets suspended in negative stain solution as above, or centrifuged for 15 min at $1,750 \times g$ onto grids in a special holder (7). The holder was disassembled and the grids treated for 15 min with stain solution from beneath, flowing through a filter paper supporting the grid (24).

RESULTS

Characteristics of Urografin gradients The shape of the analytical gradient 1 immediately after preparation can be seen in Fig. 1. A 0.5 ml aliquot of $1,100 \text{ g/cm}^3$ density Urografin solution was layered on top of the gradient before drop collection to mimic the actual analysis. The effect of 30 and 120 min centrifugation after 20 and 18 h diffusion is also illustrated. Fractionation by drop collection shows that the gradient after 120 min centrifugation is almost linear between $n_D^{20} 1.3680$ and $n_D^{20} 1.4015$ corresponding to the densities of 1.121 g/cm^3 and 1.237 g/cm^3 respectively. As expected, immediate collection of fractions shows that the gradient is stepwise. The apparent difference in slope between 30 and 120 min centrifugation may be due to slight differences in total volume or drop size as indicated

by a limited volume of the last fraction in the latter experiment. The pattern of cell bands remained indistinguishable between one and three h of centrifugation (not shown). The increased density of top fractions (to the right) is believed to be due to evaporation of water from the surface layers in the tube during the collection of fractions, and is considered to be of no consequence for the results. Residual moisture in the collection needle may explain the lower density of some bottom fractions.

Because of the relatively high density *K. kineg* cells banded near the bottom of the analytical gradient 1 (cf Fig. 3). For this reason the analytical gradient 2 which gave a band position of *K. kineg* near the middle was developed. This gradient was almost linear between 1.165 and 1.265 g/cm^3 and was as stable as the analytical gradient 1 (not shown, cf Fig. 5).

When post-logarithmic *M. lavis* 9 SC cells were suspended in Urografin solution of density 1.244 g/cm^3 after the usual washing in $1,100 \text{ g/cm}^3$ solution and exchanged for 0.5 ml from the bottom of the tube, they reached the same position in the analytical gradient 1 as cells treated in the regular way. However some aggregation occurred in the samples started from the bottom of the tubes. Rebanding experiments were also performed and these ensured that an almost identical position was reached in the second gradient.

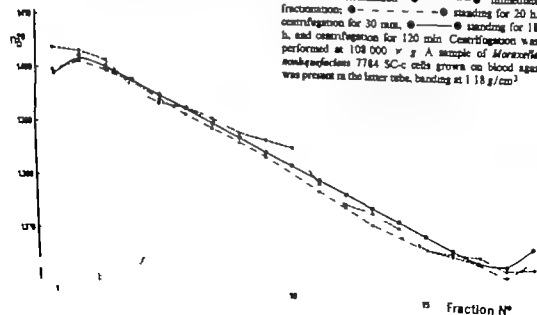


Fig. 1 Refractive index changes in the Urografin gradient with time and centrifugation. See text for preparation of gradients, and for refractive index values and their determination. —○—○— immediate fractionation; —●—●— standing for 20 h, centrifugation for 30 min; —●—●— standing for 18 h, and centrifugation for 120 min. Centrifugation was performed at $108,000 \times g$. A sample of *Moraxella nonliquefaciens* 7784 SC-c cells grown on blood agar was present in the latter tube, banding at 1.18 g/cm^3 .

Electron microscopy. Cells and lamellae on TS or PBS suspensions were sedimented by centrifugation of 0.2 ml volumes in a Micro centrifuge (Ole Dich, Hvidovre) at $18,000 \times g$ for one and ten min, respectively. The pellets were suspended in 0.02 ml 0.3 per cent SST and transferred to grids for electron microscopy (1). Samples from Urografin gradients were usually diluted two to four-fold in distilled water and either centrifuged in the Micro centrifuge, washed once in negative stain solution, and pellets suspended in negative stain solution as above, or centrifuged for 15 min at $1750 \times g$ onto grids in a special holder (7). The holder was disassembled and the grids treated for 15 min with stain solution from beneath, flowing through a filter paper supporting the grid (24).

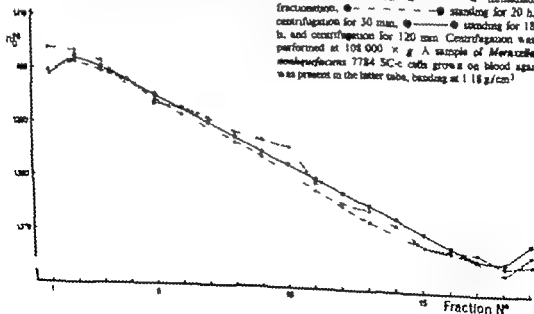
RESULTS

Characteristics of Urografin gradients. The shape of the analytical gradient 1 immediately after preparation can be seen in Fig. 1. A 0.5 ml aliquot of 1100 g/cm^3 density Urografin solution was layered on top of the gradient before drop collection to mimic the actual analysis. The effect of 30 and 120 min centrifugation after 20 and 18 h diffusion is also illustrated. Fractionation by drop collection shows that the gradient after 120 min centrifugation is almost linear between $n_D^{20} 1.3680$ and $n_D^{20} 1.4015$ corresponding to the densities of 1121 g/cm^3 and 1237 g/cm^3 respectively. As expected, immediate collection of fractions shows that the gradient is stepwise. The apparent difference in slope between 30 and 120 min centrifugation may be due to slight differences in total volume or drop size as indicated

by a limited volume of the last fraction in the latter experiment. The pattern of cell bands remained indistinguishable between one and three li of centrifugation (not shown). The increased density of top fractions (to the right) is believed to be due to evaporation of water from the surface layers in the tube during the collection of fractions, and is considered to be of no consequence for the results. Residual moisture in the collection needle may explain the lower density of some bottom fractions.

Because of the relatively high density *K. kinger* cells banded near the bottom of the analytical gradient 1 (cf Fig. 3). For this reason the analytical gradient 2 which gave a band position of *K. kinger* near the middle was developed. This gradient was almost linear between 1165 and 1265 g/cm^3 and was as stable as the analytical gradient 1 (not shown, cf Fig. 5).

When post-logarithmic *M. livers* 9 SC cells were suspended in Urografin solution of density 1244 g/cm^3 after the usual washing in 1100 g/cm^3 solution and exchanged for 0.5 ml from the bottom of the tube, they reached the same position in the analytical gradient 1 as cells treated in the regular way. However some aggregation occurred in the samples started from the bottom of the tubes. Rebanding experiments were also performed and these ensured that an almost identical position was reached in the second gradient.



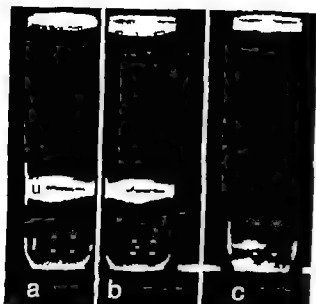


Fig. 2 Separation of *Kingella kingae* fimbriae from whole cells. A combined supernatant fraction (See Materials and Methods) of blood agar grown *K. kingae* 4177/66 SC-a (3.5 ml) was layered on top of a preparative Urografin gradient (see text). Boundaries between gradient layers as prepared are marked on tubes a and b which are parallels. The upper band (u) contains mostly cells, while the lower band (l) density 1.24 g/cm^3 is a fimbrial band with many cells. In Fig. 2 c the 1.24 g/cm^3 zone of the previous gradients (pooled material) was diluted with distilled water to a density of 1.200 g/cm^3 and layered over the following gradient: 1.217 g/cm^3 Urografin, 0.3 ml 1.240 g/cm^3 0.6 ml and 1.262 g/cm^3 0.3 ml . Centrifugation was performed at $192,000 \times g$. The upper and lower limits of the initial 1.240 g/cm^3 layer are indicated.

Densities, concentration and purification of fimbriae from M. nonliquefaciens and K. kingae. *K. kingae* fimbrial fractions were found to have an apparent equilibrium density in Urografin of about 1.24 g/cm^3 . This is only slightly higher than that of the cells (see below). Fig. 2 a and b show the separation of a combined supernatant fraction of *K. kingae* 4177/66 SC-a into an upper layer consisting mainly of cells (u) and a concentrated fimbrial suspension in the lower part of the tube (l). Electron microscopy of the fimbrial band showed that this contained some whole cells and presumably outer membrane fragments in addition to fimbriae (see below). Although the enrichment of fimbriae in this fraction was considerable and the fraction useful as a concentrate, it proved impossible to get rid of the contaminants by rebanding in Urografin (Fig. 2 c), in CsCl gradients or by isoelectric focusing (7). The subsequent purification attempts tended to give two or three bands, each of which were shown by electron microscopy to

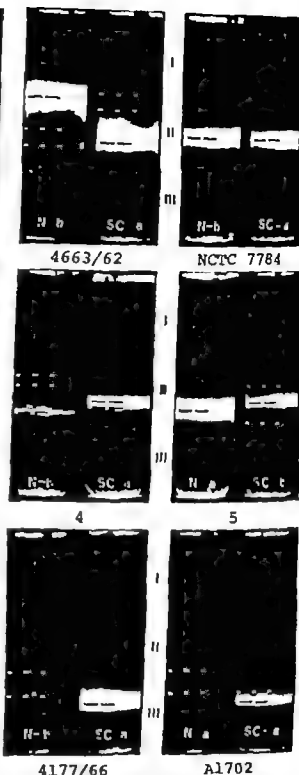


Fig. 3 Density distribution in Urografin gradients of agar grown fimbriation variants of *Moraxella* and *Kingella*. The four component analytical gradient I was used. Cells were grown on blood agar plates (1) for two days. See text for details and further references. Roman numerals I, II, and III indicate the regions of densities 1.125 , 1.175 and 1.225 g/cm^3 respectively. In this range the gradient is almost linearly increasing in density (Fig. 1). One N and one SC variant of each strain as indicated on the lower part of the tubes (grown strictly in parallel) were used. Each distinctly visible band is indicated with a dotted tracing on the tube.

contain a mixture of cells, cell fragments and fimbriae differing little in appearance. *M. nonliquefaciens* 7784 SC-c gave similar results. Although the fimbriae of this strain usually had an equilibrium density of 1.22 g/cm^3 which is distinctly higher than that of the cells of this species (see below), cellular fragments and some whole cells always contaminated fimbrial fractions. In addition, the fimbrial density showed some variation from experiment to experiment (cf. Fig. 2 c), presumably because of the presence of varying amounts of contaminants.

Densities of bacterial cells from different media and stages of growth. Fig. 3 shows the distribution of whole cells in the analytical gradient of two-day old blood agar cultures of N and SC variants of *M. nonliquefaciens*, *M. bovis* and *K. kriegae*, two strains of each. Only *M. nonliquefaciens* 7784 gives rise to one band, which is of similar density for both variants. The other strains show up to three bands, and some variants show broad bands indicating a wide density distribution of cells in a single band. The *K. kriegae* cells occupy positions close to the bottom of these gradients, whereas the *M. nonliquefaciens* and *M. bovis* cells are located in the middle or higher. *M. bovis* is possibly a little more dense than *M. nonliquefaciens*. In both of the *K. kriegae* strains and in *M. nonliquefaciens* 4663/62, the bulk of the SC cells are more dense than the N type of

cells. In *M. bovis*, almost the same density is observed for the two variants, perhaps slightly less for the SC type. These differences may be due to the fimbriae having density other than that of the cells (i.e. higher in *M. nonliquefaciens* and *K. kriegae*). However further studies disclosed a considerable variation between parallel experiments and also some variation related to the type of medium and to the age of the culture. Consequently some additional experiments were performed (Figs. 4 and 5). Fig. 4 shows that *M. nonliquefaciens* 7784 SC-c cells form one band under several different growth conditions, but with somewhat variable density. Tubes d and f illustrate a relatively broad distribution of cells in old cultures and tube e the narrow single band of density 1.195 g/cm^3 generally found in early log phase cultures of this strain. Tube g shows a post-logarithmic culture similar to f but with two bands. The lower band (marked h) was studied by electron microscopy as were the bands u and l of tube d (see below). In additional experiments (not shown) logarithmically growing *M. nonliquefaciens* 4663/62 and 7784 gave a single band of density about 1.19 g/cm^3 regardless of whether fimbriated or non-fimbriated variants were studied. However both types of strain 4663/62 variants revealed a rather broad band also under these conditions. *M. bovis* was not studied extensively in this way but logarithmically growing cells

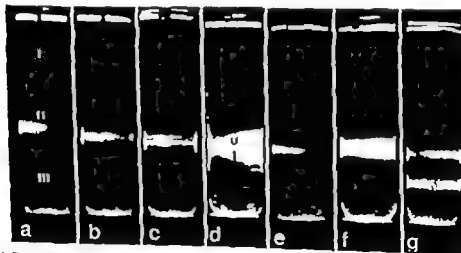


Fig. 4. Density gradient variations of *Moraxella nonliquefaciens* with different growth conditions. The analytical Ultragraph gradient 1 was used. In a, b and c *M. nonliquefaciens* 7784 SC-c was grown on solid media for 18 h before harvesting: growth on blood agar medium, b on fresh Mueller-Hinton + 1% yeast Extract agar, c on a three week old batch of the latter medium. d: blood agar growth for 44 h (cells from the zones u and l were studied by electron microscopy see Fig. 6 b and c); e: early logarithmic; and f: early post-logarithmic growth in broth (same culture) and g: separate broth culture, early post-logarithmic growth. Cells from the lower granular (h) or (u) seen as tube g were studied by electron microscopy (Fig. 6 d). See Materials and Methods for details. Density regions corresponding to 1.125 , 1.175 and 1.225 g/cm^3 are indicated on tube a with Roman numerals I, II, and III, respectively.

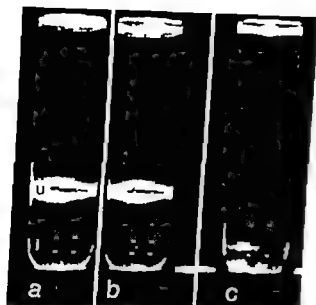


Fig. 2 Separation of *Kingella kingae* fimbriae from whole cells. A combined supernatant fraction (See Materials and Methods) of blood agar grown *K. kingae* 4177/66 SC-a (3.5 ml) was layered on top of a preparative Urografin gradient (see text). Boundaries between gradient layers as prepared are marked on tubes a and b which are parallel. The upper band (u) contains mostly cells, while the lower band (l, density 1.24 g/cm^3) is a fimbrial band with many cells. In Fig. 2 c the 1.24 g/cm^3 zone of the previous gradient (pooled material) was diluted with distilled water to a density of 1.200 g/cm^3 and layered over the following gradient. 1.217 g/cm^3 Urografin, 0.3 ml; 1.240 g/cm^3 0.6 ml and 1.262 g/cm^3 0.3 ml. Centrifugation was performed at $192,000 \times g$. The upper and lower limits of the initial 1.240 g/cm^3 layer are indicated.

Densities, concentration and purification of fimbriae from M. nonliquefaciens and K. kingae. *K. kingae* fimbrial fractions were found to have an apparent equilibrium density in Urografin of about 1.24 g/cm^3 . This is only slightly higher than that of the cells (see below). Fig. 2 a and b show the separation of a combined supernatant fraction of *K. kingae* 4177/66 SC-a into an upper layer consisting mainly of cells (u) and a concentrated fimbrial suspension in the lower part of the tube (l). Electron microscopy of the fimbrial band showed that this contained some whole cells and presumably outer membrane fragments in addition to fimbriae (see below). Although the enrichment of fimbriae in this fraction was considerable and the fraction useful as a concentrate, it proved impossible to get rid of the contaminants by rebanding in Urografin (Fig. 2 c). In CsCl gradients or by isoelectric focusing (7) The subsequent purification attempts tended to give two or three bands, each of which were shown by electron microscopy to



Fig. 3 Density distribution in Urografin gradients of agar grown fimbriation variants of *Moraxella* and *Kingella*. The floor component analytical gradient I was used. Cells were grown on blood agar plates (1) for two days. See text for details and further references. Roman numerals I, II and III indicate the regions of densities 1.125 , 1.175 and 1.225 g/cm^3 respectively. In this range the gradient is almost linearly increasing in density (Fig. 1). One N and one SC variant of each strain as indicated on the lower part of the tubes (grown strictly in parallel) were used. Each distinctly visible band is indicated with a dotted tracing on the tube.



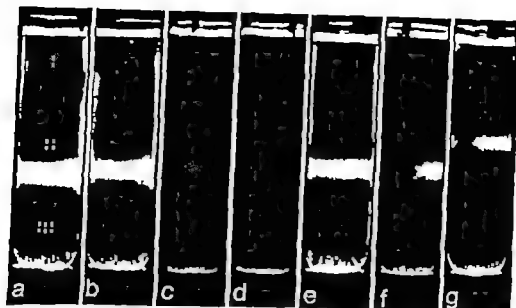


Fig. 5 Density gradient centrifugation of *Kingella kingae* 9076/70 N-b and SC-b variants. The analytical Urografin gradient 2 was used. Tubes a to e show experiments with cells grown in broth: a early logarithmic phase, and b middle logarithmic phase (one experiment), c early logarithmic phase and d middle logarithmic phase (another experiment), all with the N-b variant, and e an experiment with the SC b variant (early logarithmic phase). For comparison tubes f and g show the SC b variant harvested from blood agar after incubation for 20 h and 70 h, respectively. See Materials and Methods for composition of media and other details. Tube f contains a glass bead of density 1.23 g/cm^3 . Density regions corresponding to 1.165 , 1.215 and 1.265 g/cm^3 are indicated on tube a with Roman numerals I, II and III (dotted), respectively.

of strain 9 SC gave a single, broad band of density 1.20 g/cm^3 which is only a little higher than the density of the *M. nonliquefaciens* cells studied.

Fig. 5 shows the apparently fimbriation independent density of approximately 1.23 g/cm^3 of *K. kingae* 9076/70 cells, similar to the density of strain 4177/66 SC a shown in Fig. 2. A single band of the same density was found for strain A1702 N-a and SC a when grown logarithmically in broth (not shown). Fig. 5 a and b show the occasional occurrence of several bands in *K. kingae* also when growing logarithmically and Fig. 5 g shows a displacement towards lower cell density with age of blood agar cultures.

Electron microscopy of material collected from gradients. In general it was difficult to study gradient material by electron microscopy. The material had to be washed. The single band of logarithmically growing *M. nonliquefaciens* 7784 SC-c broth cultures contained fimbriated, single, rod-shaped cells and diplobacilli in a well-preserved form by either method of preparation (Fig. 6 a). Two-day old agar plate cultures of this clone showed cells that were apparently more prone to plasmolysis, with no difference in this respect or as regards fimbriation from cells of slightly different density (Fig. 4 d, bands u and l). Fig. 6 b and c). The light areas indicated by open arrows in Fig. 6 b and c are thought to represent spaces of plasmolysis in

the cells. The granular high density band (Fig. 4 g, band h) sometimes observed in older cultures, was found to contain aggregated and lysed cells (Fig. 6 d).

Fig. 6 e and f show the network of fimbriae in the fimbrial band of *K. kingae* 4177/66 SC-a (Fig. 2) containing also some cells and cell fragments.

Fig. 6 Electron micrographs of samples from Urografin gradients. a Logarithmically growing cells of *Moraxella nonliquefaciens* 7784 SC-c sampled from a single band of density 1.195 g/cm^3 . Preparation by centrifugation onto the grid (7) washed and stained with 0.8 per cent SST (see Materials and Methods) through a filter paper supporting the grid $10,000 \times$. b The upper part of a broad band of *M. nonliquefaciens* 7784 SC-c (Fig. 4 d, band u). Preparation as a $10,000 \times$. c The lower part of the broad band studied in b, treated in parallel (Fig. 4 d, band l) $10,000 \times$. The open arrows in b and c point to areas of the cells with reduced staining which may represent plasmolysis. d The lower band (h) of Fig. 4 g. A drop of the sample was placed on the grid for two min and the surplus liquid removed by touching the edge with filter paper. Washing and staining with 0.8 per cent SST $10,000 \times$. e The fimbrial band of *Kingella kingae* 4177/66 SC-a from a preparative Urografin gradient (similar to Fig. 2 a and b, lower band) washed once in 0.8 per cent SST by centrifugation and subsequently stained with 0.8 per cent SST $10,000 \times$. f Same preparation as Fig. 6 d. $50,000 \times$.



a



b



c



d



e



f

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DISCUSSION

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In *Neisseria meningitidis* a partial separation between competent and incompetent cells was found within one band after centrifugation in a 5 to 40 per cent (w/v) sucrose gradient at 4 000 rev/min for 10 min at 4° C. The competent cells were enriched in the light density zone, and it was suggested (16) that the difference in sedimentation is connected with the difference in fimbriation or membrane structure observed in this species (10, 15). This separation was based on sedimentation velocity and differs from the present method. It remains to be shown whether *Moraxella* and *Kingella* competence variants can be fractionated in a sucrose gradient.

Bacterial cells might change density depending upon the medium and growth rate (20). This may partly explain the changes in density distribution found occasionally (see Fig. 4 a - g and Fig. 5 f and g). The occurrence of more than one density band may thus be interpreted as the result of general growth-physiological variation. Several of these strains have been described as pleomorphic, and such size/form variants might partly explain a tendency towards density variation. The occurrence

CROSS-REACTIONS BETWEEN *NEISSERIA MENINGITIDIS* AND TWENTY-SEVEN OTHER BACTERIAL SPECIES

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Key words: *Neisseria meningitidis*, cross-reactivity, quantitative immunoelectrophoresis.

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These findings raise the question as to whether the *N. meningitidis* antigens are species- or genus-specific or only cross-reactive antigens.

In order to answer these questions, antigens from a broad spectrum of other bacteria have been compared with the meningococcal reference system using known quantitative immunoelectrophoretic

methods. These methods are characterized by high resolving power with respect to separation of antigens, and at the same time they can show reactions of identity or partial identity between antigens, and furthermore they can give a semi-quantitative expression of the degree of cross-reactions (11). These methods, therefore, are well suited for studying immunochemical relations between complex antigen mixtures.

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Accepted as submitted 29 x 77

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intermediate gel between first and second dimension electrophoresis of Ref-ag against Ref-ab (absorption of antibodies in situ). Each analytical series of immunoelectrophoresis was repeated at least twice using different

antigen/antibody ratios to confirm the reaction of identity or partial identity between the antigens (1, 2). The degree of cross-reactivity between antigens was estimated after absorption of antibodies by size according

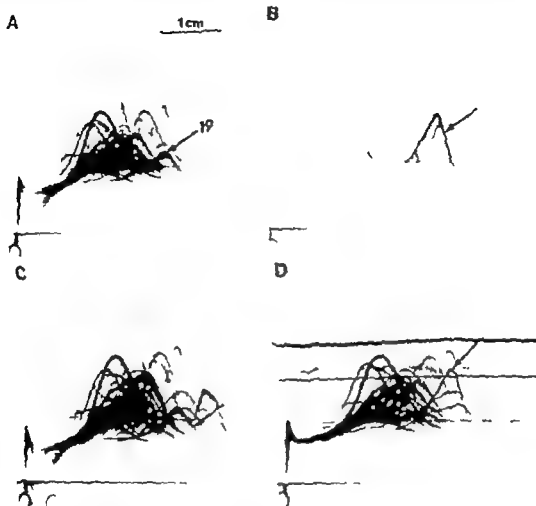


Fig. 1. Comparison of antigens from *Yersinia enterocolitica* and *Neisseria meningitidis* (Ref-ag) using a pooled rabbit antiserum against *N. meningitidis* (Ref-ab).

- Crossed immunoelectrophoresis of Ref-ag against Ref-ab. Below is the intermediate gel. Forty-eight precipitates were seen in this reference pattern. Precipitate no. 19 is indicated by an arrow.
- Crossed immunoelectrophoresis of *Y. enterocolitica* antigens against Ref-ab. Below is the intermediate gel. Three distinct precipitates are seen. The precipitate corresponding to no. 19 in the reference pattern is indicated by an arrow.
- Tandem-crossed immunoelectrophoresis of Ref-ag and *Y. enterocolitica* antigens against Ref-ab. Below is the intermediate gel. A reaction of partial identity can be seen between one *Y. enterocolitica* antigen (the anodic) and *N. meningitidis* no. 111. The arrow indicates the spur which is parallel displaced, indicating a close relationship between the two corresponding antigens (ref. 2). Compare this plate with Fig. 1 A and B.
- Crossed-line immunoelectrophoresis of Ref-ag against Ref-ab with *Y. enterocolitica* antigens in the intermediate gel (absorption of antibodies *in situ*). The area of precipitate no. 19 has increased considerably (arrow). Compare this plate with Fig. 1 A, B and C.

(Technical: First dimension electrophoresis: anode to the right, second dimension electrophoresis: anode at the top. Staining: Coomassie Brilliant Blue.)

described previously (6-11, 13). The remaining *Neisseria* and *Brachyella* species, kindly provided by Dr Inga Lind Ståten Seruminstitut, were cultured on solid media and suspended in distilled water. The antigens were obtained by sonication as described previously (7). The colloid concentration of these antigens were 11.7-59.7 g/l (mean 29.9 g/l) measured by refractometry with human IgG as standard.

Immunoelectrophoretic methods. Antigens from each of the 27 bacterial species were compared with the meningococcal Ref-ag by means of a series of quantitative immunoelectrophoreses. Each antigen preparation was run against Ref-ag: 1) in crossed immunoelectrophoreses (23), 2) in tandem-crossed immunoelectrophoreses with Ref-ag (17), and 3) in crossed line immunoelectrophoreses (18) with the antigen in question included in the

TABLE 1 Cross reactions between *Neisseria meningitidis* and Other Bacterial Species. The Numbers Signify the Cross reactive Antigens in the Reference System. The Number of Strains Tested and the Group Type or Collection Numbers Are Given in Parentheses

| | Cross-reactive antigens and percentage of cross-reactivity | | | |
|--|--|-----------|----------|------------|
| | 100% | 100%—≥75% | 75%—≥50% | 50%—≥25% |
| <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> (4 from each of 4 phage groups) | | | | |
| <i>Streptococcus pyogenes</i> (1 group A) | | | | |
| <i>Streptococcus faecalis</i> (1) | | | | |
| <i>Streptococcus pneumoniae</i> (1) | | | | |
| <i>Bacillus subtilis</i> (1) | | | 19 | 38 |
| <i>Corynebacterium species</i> (1) | | | | 19 |
| <i>Clostridium Welchii</i> (1) | | | | 19, 38 |
| <i>Haemophilus influenzae</i> (1 type b) | | 19, 38 | | 22 |
| <i>Bordetella pertussis</i> (4 St. 3803-3825-3843-3860) | | 19 | | 22, 38, 48 |
| <i>Escherichia coli</i> (2 rough, type O21 H27) | | | 19 | 22 |
| <i>Salmonella typhi</i> (1) | | 19 | | 22, 38, 48 |
| <i>Shigella sonnei</i> (1) | | | 19 | 22, 38 |
| <i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i> (type 35) | | | 19 | 38 |
| <i>Serratia marcescens</i> (1) | | 19 | | 38, 48 |
| <i>Proteus mirabilis</i> (1) | | 19 | | 22, 38, 48 |
| <i>Yersinia enterocolitica</i> (1 type 3) | | 19 | | 22, 38 |
| <i>Flavobacterium meningosepticum</i> (1) | | | | 19 |
| <i>Bacteroides fragilis</i> ss. thetanomicon (1 VP15) | | | | |
| <i>Vibrio cholerae</i> (1 classical Inaba) | | 19 | | 38 |
| <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> (4 O groups 3, 5, 6, 11) | | 19 | | 22, 38, 48 |
| <i>Brachyella calarrhais</i> (2, ATCC 8193 NCTC 4103) | | | | 19, 22 |
| <i>Neisseria gonorrhoeae</i> (4 ss 19877/40 ss 11413/40 ATCC 11688 ATCC 11689) | 42 antigens ^a | 55 | 46 | 59 |
| <i>Neisseria lactamica</i> (1 ATCC 23970) | 47 antigens ^b | | 53, 55 | |
| <i>Neisseria flavescens</i> (1 ATCC 13120) | 36 antigens ^c | | | 54, 58, 59 |
| <i>Neisseria sacra</i> (1 ATCC 9913) | 44 antigens ^d | | 53 | 48 |
| <i>Neisseria perflava</i> (1 ATCC 10555) | 41 antigens ^e | | 53 | 48, 55 |
| <i>Neisseria subflava</i> (1) | 43 antigens | 10, 22 | | |

Three *N. meningitidis* antigens (no. 21, 40, 58) were not cross-reactive. Antigen no. 78 was not cross-reactive with strain ss 19877/40 and no. 53 was not cross-reactive with strain ATCC 11688.

- a One antigen (unidentified) was not cross-reactive.
b Ten antigens (no. 8, 8A, 4, 78, 30, 41, 45, 48, 54, 58) were not cross-reactive.
c Antigen no. 51 was not cross-reactive.
d Five antigens (no. 15, 21, 25, 37, 58) were not cross-reactive.

Cross-reactions between meningococci and other bacteria have been extensively studied with regard to the capsular polysaccharides (4, 5, 22), but to a much lesser extent as regards other antigens (16, 21). The present study does not pretend to study cross-reactions to meningococcal polysaccharides, since the relative titre in the Ref-ag of antipolysaccharide antibodies was inconveniently low for this purpose. Emphasis has been laid on other antigens, and as much as 43 antigens were found to cross-react with other *Neisseria* species.

Comparisons within the *Neisseria* Genus

Many taxonomic studies of *Neisseria* have differentiated between *stricta* and *alaba* *Neisseria* (10); in our study the *alaba* *Neisseria* is called *Brachyella* in accordance with Bergey's Manual (20). The present serological study strongly supports the distinctions between *Brachyella* and *Neisseria* on the generic level, since only two of the *Brachyella* antigens cross-reacted with *N. meningitidis*, whereas the other *Neisseria* species cross-reacted very extensively with *N. meningitidis*.

A common biochemical subdivision of *Neisseria* species is into saccharolytic and non-saccharolytic subgroups. The *Neisseria* species examined here all belong to the saccharolytic group with the exception of *N. flavescens* which is non-saccharolytic, indicating a more remote relationship to the other *Neisseria* species. This was confirmed in the present serological study where *N. flavescens* presented the lowest number of cross-reacting antigens to *N. meningitidis* (Table 1, Fig. 2).

According to our results, none of the 43 antigens in the Ref-ag was found to be specific for *N. meningitidis*, since *N. polyflava* showed cross-reactions with all the 43 antigens. However, it should be emphasized that 15 antigens in the Ref-ag preparation have not been examined for cross-reactions to other species, and among these antigens are the group-specific polysaccharides. It is also important to notice that the taxonomic implications of the present results cannot be evaluated until several strains of each species are included in the study and antisera against these other strains are raised and analysed according to the principles used in this work. Such studies are in progress in our laboratory.

Comparisons with Other Genera

Four *N. meningitidis* antigens (nos. 19, 22, 38 and 43) were found to cross-react with a wide range of other bacterial genera. One of the antigens, no. 19, has been described previously using a *P. aeruginosa*

or *B. pertussis* antigen system (11, 12). Some of the other cross-reactive antigens have been identified tentatively with antigens from these two previously described systems. The distribution of these antigens in the various bacteria, as revealed by the present reference system, is practically the same as the distribution found with the two other antigen systems that had been prepared in the same manner as the present study (11, 12).

Antigen no. 19 which is the antigen found in most other bacterial genera, has been shown to correspond to the common antigen or high motility antigen described in *Escherichia coli* by Kayser (15, 16). This antigen is probably different from the common bacterial antigen described by Kania (19), which does not occur in *P. aeruginosa* or *B. pertussis*.

Roberts et al. (21) has also described an antigen found in three *E. coli* strains, which was precipitated by antisera to meningococci groups A and C. This antigen might correspond to antigen no. 19 or one of the other two antigens found to cross-react with *E. coli*.

Characterization of the Cross-reactive Antigens

Supplementing investigations (Haff unpublished results) on the cross-reactive antigens have shown that these are heat-labile proteins which are probably not surface antigens. As regards antigen no. 19 the results of Kayser (16) showed that the common antigen corresponding to the meningococcal antigen no. 19 is located at the inner part of the bacterial cell wall. None of the four cross-reactive antigens was related to the Forrester antigen or to the endotoxin that has tentatively been identified as antigen no. 55. Nor were they shown to react with the C-reactive protein, in accordance with previous results concerning the *P. aeruginosa* and *B. pertussis* systems (11, 12).

When Ref-ag was assayed in the *Limulus* test commonly used for detection of endotoxin activity the test became positive by clotting, and antigens nos. 19 and 22 were found in the clot together with endotoxin (antigen no. 55) (Haff & Tide unpublished results). However, besides endotoxin the *Limulus* lysate has been shown also to react with proteins and polysaccharides (3).

Finally it has been found that the wide distribution of antigens nos. 19, 22 and 43 is reflected in the occurrence of corresponding precipitating antibodies in sera from nearly all normal human subjects (8), as well as from rabbits (7). Kayser (16) also found antibodies against the common antigen (corresponding to our meningococcal antigen no. 19) in rabbits and showed that these antibodies had no protective effect against

to the following principles. The percentage increase of the enclosed area of a given precipitate after absorption of antibodies *in situ* is established by comparison with a series of four immunoplates containing 100 75 50 and 25% respectively of the original concentration of Ref-ab as described previously (11 12). In this way the degree of cross reactivity can be expressed as 0 25-50 50-75 75-100 and 100% respectively. Absorption of less than 25% is considered insignificant due to the analytical variation of the present method (14).

The first dimension electrophoresis of the antigens was run with 2 μ l 1 μ l and 1 μ l diluted 1:2 or 1:4 if necessary. The intermediate gel of crossed-line immunoelectrophoresis contained the antigen in question undiluted (33.3 μ l/cm²) or in two-fold dilutions hereof or 0.9% saline as control. The reference gel contained Ref-ab (5 μ l/cm² or 2.5 μ l/cm²). Immunoplates which were compared by these methods were always run simultaneously.

RESULTS

The results of the comparison of antigens from 27 different bacterial species representing 20 different genera with the meningococcal reference system are given in Table 1. Fig. 1 A-D shows a comparison between *Yersinia enterocolitica* antigens and meningococcal antigens.

Four antigens were found in a wide range of genera, mostly gram negative bacteria. Antigen no 19 was found in 16 different genera in both gram

positive and gram-negative bacteria, antigen no. 38 in 12 different genera in both gram-positive and gram negative bacteria, and antigens nos. 22 and 43 in 8 and 5 different genera of gram-negative bacteria, respectively.

Staphylococcus, *Streptococcus* and *Bacteroides* were the only genera which showed no cross-reactions with *N. meningitidis* antigens.

Other *Neisseria* species were found to cross-react very extensively with the 48 *N. meningitidis* antigens investigated (see Fig. 2), notably *N. subflava* which cross reacted with all *N. meningitidis* antigens.

Control experiments showed that the meningococcal Ref-ag could absorb all antibodies in the Ref-ab which reacted with antigens from the various other *Neisseria* species.

Extending the previously described cross-reactions between antigens of *P. aeruginosa* and *B. pertussis* it was found that meningococcal antigen no. 19 corresponds to *P. aeruginosa* antigen no. 10 and *B. pertussis* antigen no. 11. A tentative correspondence of the other antigens is outlined below.

| | Antigens numbers | | | |
|------------------------|------------------|----|----|----|
| <i>N. meningitidis</i> | 19 | 22 | 38 | 43 |
| <i>P. aeruginosa</i> | 10 | 17 | 24 | 35 |
| <i>B. pertussis</i> | 11 | | 28 | |

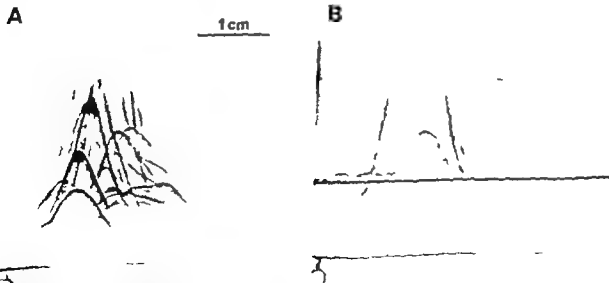


Fig. 2 Comparison of antigens from *Neisseria flavescens* with *Neisseria meningitidis* (Ref-ag) using a pooled rabbit antiserum against *N. meningitidis* (Ref-ab).

- A. Crossed immunoelectrophoresis of *N. flavescens* against Ref-ab. Saline in the intermediate gel. The pattern resembles the reference pattern (Fig. 1 A).
- B. Crossed-line immunoelectrophoresis of Ref-ag against Ref-ab with *N. flavescens* antigens in the intermediate gel (absorption of antibodies *in situ*). Of the precipitates which remain after absorption, some are unchanged, indicating that the corresponding antigens are not cross-reactive, and the areas of some precipitates are increased indicating partial identity between the corresponding antigens.

THE IMPORTANCE OF C5 AND THE ROLE OF THE ALTERNATIVE COMPLEMENT PATHWAY IN LEUKOCYTE CHEMOTAXIS INDUCED *IN VIVO* AND *IN VITRO* BY *BACTEROIDES FRAGILIS* LIPOPOLYSACCHARIDE

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Sveen, K. The importance of C5 and the role of the alternative complement pathway in leukocyte chemotaxis induced *in vivo* and *in vitro* by *Bacteroides fragilis* lipopolysaccharide. Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B. 86: 93-100, 1978.

Chambers explanted subcutaneously in C5 normal (C5 N) and C5 deficient (C5 D) mice were used to examine the migration of polymorphonuclear leukocytes (PMNs) into the wound chamber fixed in response to injected *Bacteroides fragilis* lipopolysaccharide (LPS). The difference in PMN migration was highly significant between the two mouse strains, the C5 D mice showing no initial, but a low delayed migration. The results from the study indicated that chemotaxis plays a major role in the accumulation of PMNs in the acute inflammatory response. Intraperitoneal endotoxin stimulation also showed a significantly lower total number of leukocytes in the exudate from C5 D mice as well as a delayed migration of cells compared to C5 N mice. No leukotoxic mediators were elaborated in C5 D serum or exudate upon incubation with LPS when tested in a modified Boyden chamber. However, endotoxin-induced wound chamber fixed in C5 D mice showed an increasing leukotactic activity at the same time as the acute inflammatory response subsided in C5 N mice. Incubation of *B. fragilis* LPS in C4 deficient (C4 D) guinea pig serum indicated that the LPS was able to activate complement components in guinea pig products chemotactic for rabbit PMNs via the alternative complement pathway.

Key words: C5, alternative complement pathway, chemotaxis, *Bacteroides fragilis*, lipopolysaccharide.

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The endotoxicity of lipopolysaccharides (LPS) from *Bacteroides fragilis* has been questioned (7). Nevertheless, investigations carried out in this laboratory have shown that *B. fragilis* LPS produces primary skin inflammation as well as local and generalized Stewartson reactions in rabbits (12). In addition, the LPS were lethal for mice and chick embryos, pyrogenic in rabbits and caused gelation of *Limulus amoebocyte lysate* (16). In all these tests the endotoxin activity was characteristically low. The *B. fragilis* LPS which were chemotactically active *in vivo* (14), also showed a serum-dependent *in vitro* chemotaxis for polymorphonuclear leukocytes (PMNs) (13).

Sjöderman *et al.* (10) have shown that complement (C) is implicated in the early accumulation of PMNs in inflammatory exudates produced by LPS. During the elaboration of these inflammatory mediators, which are cleavage products from C formed during the interaction with LPS, there is a pronounced consumption of the terminal C components C3 through C9 but only minimal using up of C1, C4 and C2 (4, 5, 6). The C5 was the main factor for mediation of the chemotactic activity (10, 11).

The present study was performed to examine the importance of various C components, particularly the C5, in the elaboration of leukotactic mediators upon interaction of *B. fragilis* LPS. Mice genetically

systemic *E. coli* infections. Since the cross-reactive antibodies were present both in normal human serum (8) and in serum from patients early during meningococcal infection (7), these antibodies do not seem to be protective against meningococcal infections.

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(Nalge Filter Corp.) were used to separate the chamber in two compartments. The bottom compartment, having a volume of 0.2 ml, contained the fluid to be tested for chemotactic activity. The ratio of the complement source to Gey's medium, with or without LPS, was 1:1. Aliquots of 1.2 ml of the mixtures or controls were preincubated in a water-bath at 37° C for 30 min and thereafter at 56° C for 30 min.

Exudate aspirated from in vivo chambers 5 and 20 h after injection of endotoxin was preincubated at 56° C only before being tested for chemotactic activity. The volume of 0.4 ml of the leukocyte suspension was spun down on the filter (58 × g for 1.5 min) in a cytocentrifuge (Shandon Elvehjem Cytospin SCA-0030), thus giving a total of approximately 4×10^4 PMNs on the upper surface (13) and the top compartment filled up with 0.4 ml of Gey's medium containing antibiotics and BSA. After 3 h of incubation in humid air at 37° C the filters were removed, stained and cleared. These were then mounted as described previously (11). Chemotactic activity was quantitated by counting the numbers of PMNs, which had migrated completely through the filters, in five high-power fields under light microscopy (13).

Statistical Methods

For evaluation of differences of chemotactic activity, the Wilcoxon rank test for two samples (two-tailed) was used (3). Values of $p > 0.05$ were not accepted as statistically significant. The Pearson correlation coefficient (3) was used for calculation of the linearity of the time-response curves.

EXPERIMENTS AND RESULTS

Seven days after the implantation, the chambers were surrounded by a granulation tissue, beds of which were growing through the perforations of the chamber wall, thus forming a lining of its lumen. The survival at this time was eight out of ten CS II and all ten of CS N mice.

The volume of exudate aspirated from the chambers in the CS N and CS D mice seven days after implantation (time zero) and 5 h and 20 h after injection of 50 µg LPS-E 323 in 0.2 ml saline or saline alone into the chambers, is shown in Table I.

Cells × 10⁶

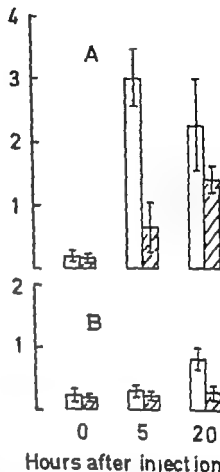


Fig. 1. Total number of leukocytes in wound chamber fixed seven days after implantation (0) and five and 20 h after application of 100 µg LPS-E 323 in 0.2 ml saline, or only saline, in CS N (A) and CS D (B) mice. Each column represents the mean number of cells per wound chamber ± standard deviation (vertical bar) from five chambers except at time zero where the number was ten. □ endotoxin induced wound fluid, ▨ saline induced wound fluid.

TABLE I. Volume (µl) of Exudate in the Wound Chambers of CS Normal (CS N) and CS Deficient (CS D) Mice Before (Time Zero) and 5- and 20 h After Injection of LPS E 323 in Saline, or Saline alone

| Mouse strain | Before injection | Five h after injection | | 20 h after injection | |
|--------------|------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|
| | Mean ± s.d. | LPS Mean ± s.d. | Saline Mean ± s.d. | LPS Mean ± s.d. | Saline Mean ± s.d. |
| CS N | 154 ± 32 | 141 ± 36 | 147 ± 47 | 161 ± 46 | 150 ± 32 |
| CS D | 179 ± 41 | 175 ± 77 | 198 ± 65 | 116 ± 43 | 118 ± 20 |

Mean and standard deviation (s.d.) are calculated from five chambers. The difference in amount of exudate aspirated from CS N and CS D mice was not significant either before or after the stimulation with LPS or saline.

deficient in C5 (C5 D) and C5 normal mice (C5 N), were employed in the experiments. Furthermore, the ability of *B. fragilis* LPS to activate the alternative complement pathway in the induction of chemotactic factor production was examined using guinea pig serum genetically deficient in C4 (C4 D).

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Animals

Mice of both sexes of the C5 normal strain NMRJ weighing 32 ± 3 g, and of the strain DBA/2J genetically deficient in C5 weighing $28 - 2$ g were used, the two mouse strains being caged separately. Adult guinea pigs, normal and genetically deficient in C4 (homozygous) (supplied by MRC Lab. Animals Centre, Surrey England), were used. Their weights ranged from 400–600 g, and the two strains were housed separately. New Zealand White rabbits, 5–6 months-old and weighing 3.5–4.0 kg were also caged separately. All animals were maintained on a standard laboratory diet and water *ad lib*. They were kept at a temperature of 20–22°C and a relative humidity of 45–50.

Measurement of Leukocyte Migration into Wound Chambers

Teflon® chambers (8) of 22 mm length and with a diameter of 6 mm, were implanted subcutaneously in the mice, one on each lateral side of the body of each animal. The preoperative preparation of the mice and the operative procedure was performed as described earlier (15). Seven days after the implantation, the formed exudate (wound fluid) in the chamber was aspirated, and the volume measured. The exudate was immediately brought to 0°C in an ice-bath, after which 25 μ l of exudate were added to 475 μ l of methylene blue, and the number of leukocytes counted using a Burkner chamber. The aspirated exudate was replaced by a suspension of 50 μ g of LPS-E 323 in 0.2 ml of sterile isotonic saline into one chamber and the same amount of saline into the other chamber as control. At different time intervals after the application of the test substances, the exudate was aspirated and its volume measured, and the number of leukocytes per wound chamber calculated. The exudate aspirated seven days after the implantation of the chambers was checked for contaminating microorganisms by microscopy of Gram stained preparations and from anaerobic and aerobic incubation on blood agar plates.

Measurement of Migration of Leukocytes into the Peritoneal Cavity

Suspensions of LPS-E 323 in amounts of 150 μ g in 0.9 ml sterile isotonic saline were injected intraperitoneally (i.p.). At different time intervals thereafter the mice were sacrificed by cervical dislocation, and the peritoneal cavity was exposed by an abdominal incision. The exudate was collected either by rinsing the peritoneal cavity with 0.005 M sodium ethylenediamine tetraacetate (EDTA) in saline (pH 7.2) to block the activation of complement (10) or only saline, both containing 10 I.U. of heparin (A/S Apotekernes Laboratorium for Specialpræparater Oslo) per ml and immediately brought to 0°C. The volume of exudate from each mouse was adjusted to a volume of 2.7 ml, and 25 μ l of this transferred to 475 μ l of methylene blue to determine the number of leukocytes per μ l of exudate.

Chemotactic Assays

Polymorphonuclear leukocytes. Polymorphonuclear leukocytes (PMNs) were harvested from the peritoneal cavity of rabbits 8–10 h after i.p. stimulation with 200 ml of a solution containing 0.1 per cent glycogen (E. Merck AG Darmstadt, W-Germany) in sterile isotonic saline. After isolation of the PMNs by centrifugation at $225 \times g$ for 5 min (IEC Universal Model UV), they were resuspended in Gey's medium containing 50 μ g gentamycin® (Schering Corporation, Bloomfield N.J. USA) and 2.5 μ g fungizone® (Squibb Flow Laboratories, Irvine, Scotland) per ml and 2 per cent bovine serum albumin (BSA) (Armour Pharmaceutical Company Ltd., Eastbourne, England). The leukocyte suspension was adjusted to give a final number of approximately 10^7 leukocytes per ml. The media used were sterilized before use by passage through a filter with a pore size of 0.45 μ (Millipore Filter Corp. Bedford, Mass. USA).

Complement Source

Fresh, pooled serum from genotoxicity C4 D and C4 N guinea pigs, as well as from C5 D and C5 N mice, was stored at -25°C in aliquots of one ml. In addition, exudate aspirated from the implanted chambers before and after stimulation with LPS was used. The exudate was centrifuged at $28\,000 \times g$ for 20 min at 4°C (Serrall RC 2 Sorvall Inc., Norwalk, Conn. USA) and the supernatant fluid frozen in aliquots of one ml. Endotoxin or saline stimulated peritoneal exudate was centrifuged at $28\,000 \times g$ and lyophilized. The lyophilized exudate from three mice was redissolved in 1 ml of distilled water and dialyzed against saline of at least 1000 times their volume using a magnetic mixer at 4°C for 24 h and thereafter lyophilized. Before testing on chemotactic activity the freeze-dried exudate was dissolved in 0.8 ml of Gey's medium, thus giving a concentration of the exudate ten times higher than at the harvesting.

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Chemotaxis of rabbit PMNs was quantitatively assayed by the Boyden Macropore filter technique (1) using a modified Boyden chamber (11) (Neuroprobe, Bethesda, Md. USA). Filters of 3.0 μ pore size

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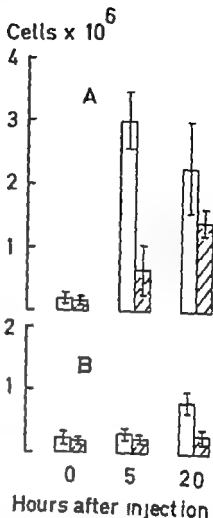


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| Mouse strain | Before injection | Five h after injection | | 20 h after injection | |
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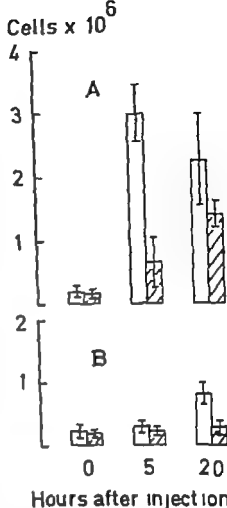


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Mice of both sexes of the C5 normal strain NMRI weighing 32–33 g, and of the strain DBA/2J genetically deficient in C5 weighing 28 ± 2 g were used, the two mouse strains being caged separately. Adult guinea pigs, normal and genetically deficient in C4 (homozygous) (supplied by MRC Lab Animals Centre, Surrey, England), were used. Their weights ranged from 400–600 g, and the two strains were housed separately. New Zealand White rabbits, 5–6-months-old and weighing 3.5–4.0 kg, were also caged separately. All animals were maintained on a standard laboratory diet and water *ad lib*. They were kept at a temperature of 20–22° C and a relative humidity of 45–50%.

Measurement of Leukocyte Migration Into Wound Chambers

Teflon® chambers (8) of 22 mm length and with a diameter of 6 mm, were implanted subcutaneously in the mice, one on each lateral side of the body of each animal. The preoperative preparation of the mice and the operative procedure was performed as described earlier (15). Seven days after the implantation, the formed exudate (wound fluid) in the chamber was aspirated, and the volume measured. The exudate was immediately brought to 0° C in an ice-bath, after which 25 μ l of exudate were added to 475 μ l of methylene blue, and the number of leukocytes counted using a Bürker chamber. The aspirated exudate was replaced by a suspension of 50 μ g of LPS-E 323 in 0.2 ml of sterile isotonic saline into one chamber and the same amount of saline into the other chamber as control. At different time intervals after the application of the test substances, the exudate was aspirated and its volume measured and the number of leukocytes per wound chamber calculated. The exudate aspirated seven days after the implantation of the chambers was checked for contaminating microorganisms by microscopy of Gram stained preparations and from anaerobic and aerobic incubation on blood agar plates.

Measurement of Migration of Leukocytes into the Peritoneal Cavity

Suspensions of LPS-E 323 in amounts of 150 μ g in 0.9 ml sterile isotonic saline were injected intraperitoneally (i.p.). At different time intervals thereafter the mice were sacrificed by cervical dislocation, and the peritoneal cavity was exposed by an abdominal incision. The exudate was collected either by rinsing the peritoneal cavity with 0.005 M sodium ethylenediamine tetraacetate (EDTA) in saline (pH 7.2) to block the activation of complement (10) or only saline, both containing 10 IU of heparin (A/S Apothekernes Laboratorium for Specialpræparater, Oslo) per ml and immediately brought to 0° C. The volume of exudate from each mouse was adjusted to a volume of 2.7 ml, and 25 μ l of this transferred to 475 μ l of methylene blue to determine the number of leukocytes per μ l of exudate.

Chemotactic Assays

Polymorphonuclear leukocytes. Polymorphonuclear leukocytes (PMNs) were harvested from the peritoneal cavity of rabbits 8–10 h after i.p. stimulation with 200 ml of a solution containing 0.1 per cent glycogen (E. Merck AG Darmstadt, W-Germany) in sterile isotonic saline. After isolation of the PMNs by centrifugation at $225 \times g$ for 5 min (IEC, Universal Model UV) they were resuspended in Gey's medium containing 50 μ g gentamicin* (Schering Corporation, Bloomfield, N.J. USA) and 2.5 μ g fungizone* (Squibb, Flow Laboratories, Irvine, Scotland) per ml and 2 per cent bovine serum albumin (BSA) (Armour Pharmaceutical Company Ltd., Eastbourne, England). The leukocyte suspension was adjusted to give a final number of approximately 10^7 leukocytes per ml. The media used were sterilized before use by passage through a filter with a pore size of 0.45 μ (Millipore Filter Corp. Bedford Mass. USA).

Complement Source

Fresh, pooled serum from genetically C4 D and C4 N guinea pigs, as well as from C5 D and C5 N mice, was stored at –25° C in aliquots of one ml. In addition, exudate aspirated from the implanted chambers before and after stimulation with LPS was used. The exudate was centrifuged at $28\,000 \times g$ for 20 min at 4° C (Servall RC 2, Sorvall Inc., Norwalk, Conn. USA) and the supernatant fluid frozen in aliquots of one ml. Endotoxin or saline stimulated peritoneal exudate was centrifuged at $28\,000 \times g$ and lyophilized. The lyophilized exudate from three mice was redissolved in 1 ml of distilled water and dialyzed against saline of at least 1000 times their volume using a magnetic mixer at 4° C for 24 h and thereafter lyophilized. Before testing on chemotactic activity the freeze-dried exudate was dissolved in 0.8 ml of Gey's medium, thus giving a concentration of the exudate ten times higher than at the harvesting.

Measurement of Chemotactic Activity

Chemotaxis of rabbit PMNs was quantitatively assayed by the Boyden Micropore filter technique (1) using a modified Boyden chamber (11) (Neuroprobe, Bethesda, Md. USA). Filters of 3.0 μ pore size

Cells x 100

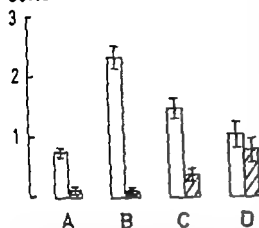


Fig 3 Exudate aspirated from chambers implanted in mice and tested for chemotaxis in a modified Boyden chamber. Each column represents the mean number of cells on the chemotactic side of the filter disc \pm standard deviation (vertical bar) from five filters. Chemotaxis induced by exudate aspirated seven days after implantation without LPS (A) and incubated with 100 μ g LPS-E 323 (B). C and D represent chemotaxis induced by inflammatory exudate aspirated five and 20 h after local LPS injection, respectively. \square C5 N exudate, \blacksquare C5 D exudate.

time. The cell accumulation in C5 D mice was not distinctly above the control counts until seven h after the endotoxin was instilled, i.e. a rather steep ascending time-response relationship in C5 N mice compared with that of C5 D mice was found. However a significant correlation was found between the time after endotoxin injection and accumulation of cells both in C5 N ($r = 0.99$, $p < 0.001$) and in C5 D ($r = 0.92$, $p < 0.005$) mice. The peak in peritoneal cell accumulation in C5 D mice at 20 h was only 25 per cent of that in C5 N mice. The time-response curves (standard deviations of the means) after endotoxin injection did not overlap each other at any time interval. In the time interval of seven to 20 h, however the saline induced time-response curves overlapped each other.

An *in vitro* experiment for measurement of chemotaxis from exudates aspirated from wound chambers of C5 N and C5 D mice at time zero and five and 20 h after the application of endotoxin is shown in Fig. 3. Exudates aspirated from C5 D mice seven days after implantation rendered a non-stimulated activity of about 15 per cent only of that from C5 N mice. Incubation of the same exudates with 100 μ g of LPS-E 323 per 0.1 ml exudate

indicated that no chemotactic mediators were generated from C5 D exudate giving cell counts even lower than the controls. The exudates aspirated five h after endotoxin application were found chemotactically active in both mouse strains, but the exudate from C5 N mice rendered about four times higher cell counts than that from C5 D mice ($p < 0.01$). At 20 h however no significant difference in chemotactic activity between the exudates was found ($p > 0.05$).

The capacity of endotoxin to induce chemotaxis when incubated in serum from C5 N and C5 D mice is shown in Fig. 4. No leukotactic mediators were elaborated from serum deficient in C5: the difference in chemotactic activity to serum alone was not statistically significant ($p > 0.05$). Even the cell counts from C5 N serum was higher than the number of cells per high-power field from the C5 D serum-endotoxin mixture ($p < 0.01$).

The chemotactic activity exerted on rabbit PMNs by C4 N and C4 D guinea pig serum upon

Cells x 100

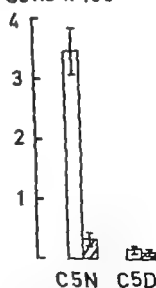


Fig 4 Leukocyte chemotaxis from mouse serum upon incubation with 100 μ g LPS-E 323 and tested in a modified Boyden chamber. Each column represents the mean number of cells per high-power field on the chemotactic side of the filter \pm standard deviation (vertical bar) from five filters. C5 N = C5 normal serum, C5 D = C5 deficient serum. \square serum + LPS, \blacksquare serum alone.

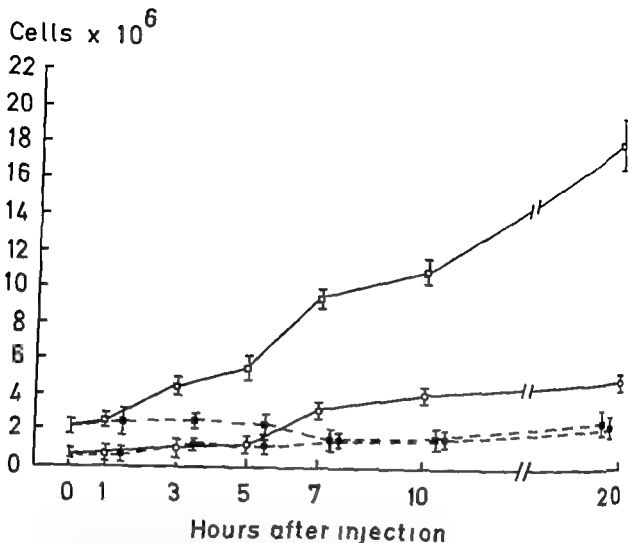


Fig 2 Kinetics of leukocyte accumulation in the peritoneal cavity of C5 N and C5 D mice after local injection of 50 µg LPS-E 323 in 0.9 ml saline, or saline alone. Each point represents the mean cell count ± standard deviation (vertical bar) from three mice. There is a time difference of half an hour between the aspiration of endotoxin and saline induced exudate.

—□— C5 N mice injected with LPS —○— C5 D mice injected with LPS
 —■— C5 N mice injected with saline —●— C5 D mice injected with saline

Comparison of the amount of exudate from chambers injected with endotoxin suspension to that from chambers containing saline 5 h and 20 h later gave no statistical significance in either of the mouse strains ($p > 0.05$).

At time zero no significant difference in the total number of cells per wound chamber was to be observed when C5 N and C5 D mice were compared ($p > 0.05$) (Fig. 1). Five h after the application of endotoxin the total number of cells in the wound chamber fluid from C5 N mice was significantly higher than that from C5 D mice ($p < 0.01$). The control chambers of C5 N mice contained wound fluid more rich in cells than the corresponding chambers of C5 D mice ($p < 0.01$). When comparing the total content of cells in chambers inoculated with endotoxin to those containing saline, the higher number of cells in

endotoxin induced wound fluid was statistically significant in C5 N mice ($p < 0.01$) but there was no difference in C5 D mice ($p > 0.05$). Twenty h after injection of endotoxin, or saline only the higher total number of cells in chambers of C5 N than of C5 D mice, was at the level of one per cent both in endotoxin and in saline induced wound fluid. At this time the number of cells accumulated in the endotoxin induced exudate was similar to that of the control exudate in C5 N mice, but the endotoxin induced wound chamber fluid contained a significantly higher number of cells than that induced by saline in C5 D mice ($p < 0.01$).

Kinetics of leukocyte accumulation intraperitoneally after stimulation with endotoxin in the C5 N were quite different from that of C5 D mice (Fig. 2). Three h after injection of endotoxin a significant increase in the influx of cells was found in C5 N

Cells per high-power field

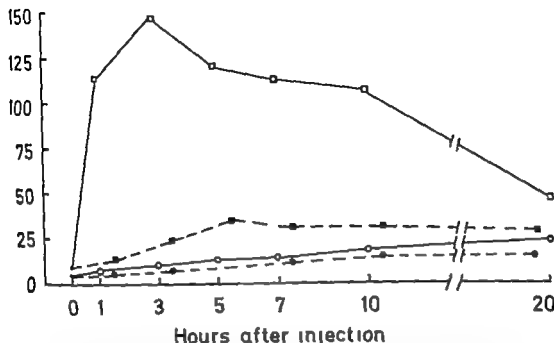


Fig 4 Leukocyte chemotaxis from the same peritoneal exudate as shown in Fig. 2, tested in a modified Boyden chamber device. Each point represents the mean number of cells on the chemotactic side of the filter from two filters — □— endotoxin stimulated exudate in C5 N mice, —■— saline stimulated exudate in C5 N mice, —○— endotoxin stimulated exudate in C5 D mice, —●— saline stimulated exudate in C5 D mice.

was injected intraperitoneally. This finding corroborates that of Seydelman *et al.* (10) who also demonstrated a peak in mediator concentration of the exudate in the early phase of the inflammatory response after local injection of endotoxin.

Problems were encountered in the experiments using C5 D mice as they easily succumbed to infection, which also has been experienced by others (2, 9). The delay in accumulation of PMNs in C5 D mice in *in vivo* chamber as well as in the peritoneal cavity after local endotoxin injection may therefore suggest this gap in the mechanism of defence to be a contributing factor to their relatively high mortality rate.

The *B. fragilis* LPS prompted an escape of fluid into the wound chamber of both C5 N and C5 D mice. A decrease in volume of wound chamber fluid was found to parallel the increased number of cells after local endotoxin stimulation in C5 D mice, whereas an increase in volume of wound chamber fluid, but a decrease in cell number accumulation in C5 N mice was found in the late phase of the inflammatory response. Though there normally may be an increased permeability of the vessels of

the granulation tissue within the chamber in connection with the application of LPS to normal mice, these results indicate that a vascular dilatation may play a minor role in the accumulation of PMNs in an acute inflammatory response.

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5. Frank, M. M., May, J. E. & Kane, M. A.

incubation with endotoxin is demonstrated in Fig 5. The migration induced by cytotoxins generated in C4 D serum, was almost of the same order of magnitude as the migration induced by cytotoxins generated in C4 N serum by *B. fragilis* LPS. The difference in chemotactic stimulation provided by the two sera was not statistically significant ($p > 0.05$).

In vitro tests on the chemotactic activity exerted on rabbit PMNs from pooled peritoneal exudate of C5 N mice concentrated ten times, was most pronounced 3 h after the local injection of LPS (Fig. 6). In contrast, the chemotactic activity from the supernatants of the exudate from C5 D mice was not found before 20 h and was very low. The quantitative cell responses of exudate harvested from the peritoneal cavity using EDTA or saline were similar.

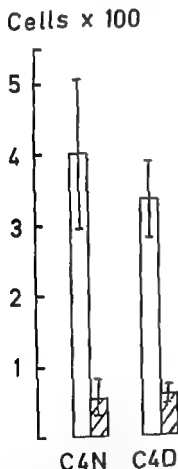


Fig 5 Leukocyte chemotaxis from LPS-E 323 in doses of 100 μ g upon incubation with C4 normal (C4 N) and C4 deficient (C4 D) guinea pig serum and tested in a modified Boyden chamber. Each column represents the mean number of cells per high-power field on the chemotactic side of the filter \pm standard deviation (vertical bar) from five filters. \square serum + LPS \square serum alone.

DISCUSSION

The main implications of the present study are that LPS isolated from *B. fragilis* promote a C5 dependent leukocyte chemotaxis in mice, and that the leukocyte chemotaxis *in vitro* induced by the same LPS takes place in the absence of C4 but not C5. Therefore, this shows that *B. fragilis* LPS like LPS from *Vellionella* (11) and *Salmonella* (10), induces the production of chemotactic mediators via the alternative complement pathway.

The data from the *in vivo* experiments as well as from the *in vitro* studies, show that C5 D mice are unable to generate mediators chemotactic for PMNs in the early phase of the inflammatory response to *B. fragilis* LPS. These findings and results obtained by others (10, 11) show that chemotactic factors essential in the inflammatory response, are products from C components, and that the main chemotactic mediator probably is a split product from C5. The results of this study also corroborate the findings of Frank *et al.* (5) that endotoxins activate the late complement factors (C3-C9) via the alternative pathway the reason being no significant difference in chemotactic factor elaboration upon incubation with C4 N and C4 D guinea pig serum (cf Fig. 5). This implies that the chemotaxis measured is not the result of an interaction between antibodies in the serum or exudate with the *B. fragilis* LPS.

The accumulation of PMNs in the wound chamber fluid of the C5 D mice was not marked until 20 h after the local injection of LPS (cf Fig. 1). The induction of an inflammatory defence mechanism functioning in C5 D mice could also be demonstrated in *in vitro* examination of the endotoxin stimulated exudate. Thus, there was detectable chemotactic activity of the wound chamber fluid aspirated five h after the injection of LPS into the chamber and a marked chemotaxis of that after 20 h (cf Fig. 3). These findings do not give conclusive evidence as to the nature of this late attraction activity. However from the results presented, chemotaxis seemed to be responsible for the leukocyte migration *in vivo*.

The late intraperitoneal cell accumulation after local stimulation with LPS-E 323 in C5 D mice (cf Fig. 2) is in agreement with the findings of Snyderman *et al.* (10). At any time interval, the response, expressed as the accumulation of PMNs, was two to four times higher in the C5 N mice. Thus, the pattern of their time-response curves was quite similar as shown by their respective correlation coefficients. Examination of chemotactic activity of peritoneal exudate from C5 N mice *in vitro* demonstrated a peak in mediator concentration corresponding to that harvested 3 h after endotoxin

Cells per high-power field

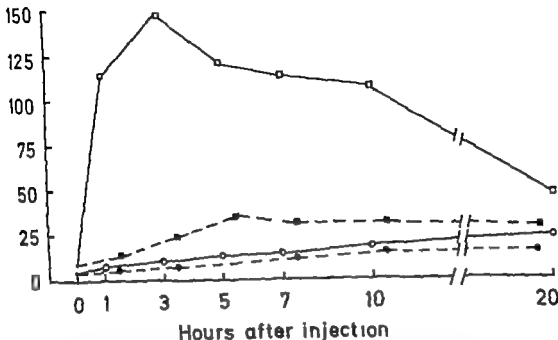


Fig 6 Leucocyte chemotaxis from the same peritoneal exudates as shown in Fig 2, tested in a modified Boyden chamber device. Each point represents the mean number of cells on the chemotactic side of the filter from two filters. —□— endotoxin-stimulated exudate in C5 N mice. —■— saline-stimulated exudate in C5 N mice. —○— endotoxin-stimulated exudate in C5 D mice. —●— saline-stimulated exudate in C5 D mice.

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Cells x 100

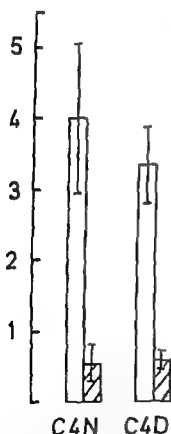


Fig 1 Leukocyte chemotaxis from LPS-E 323 in doses of 100 µg upon incubation with C4 normal (C4 N) and C4 deficient (C4 D) guinea pig serum and tested in a modified Boyden chamber. Each column represents the mean number of cells per high-power field on the chemotactic side of the filter \pm standard deviation (vertical bar) from five filters. \square serum + LPS \blacksquare serum alone.

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BACTERIAL CONTAMINATION OF HEAT-STERILIZED, HEAT DISINFECTED AND CHEMICALLY DISINFECTED HAEMODIALYSIS MONITORS

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Kolmos, H. J. Bacterial contamination of heat-sterilized, heat-disinfected and chemically-disinfected haemodialysis monitors. *Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B*, 86: 101-106 1978

The bacterial contamination of one heat-sterilized, three heat-disinfected and four chemically-disinfected monitor types was evaluated before and after dialysis. All monitor types were contaminated. In the heat-treated monitors the level of contamination varied with the intensity of the heat treatment and the technical design. They were less contaminated than the chemically-disinfected recirculating single-pass monitors. The latter were contaminated to a marginal degree, irrespective of the quality of the water supply. Each monitor showed a characteristic microbial flora, indicating that recolonization occurred from the same persistent flora. Acquired antibiotic resistance characters were rare among the potential bacteria pathogens isolated from the dialysate.

The level of contamination during dialysis is determined by a complex of factors, including the mode of disinfection, the technical design of the dialysis equipment, the duration of the dialysis, and the flora of the dialysate.

Key words: Bacterial contamination, haemodialysis monitors, bacterial flora, antibiotic resistance.

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Microbial contamination of the dialysate fluid used in haemodialysis represents a major hygienic problem. Bacteria and their waste products may cross dialysis membranes (1-10) and cause pyrogenic reactions in the patients (4, 7, 9) and the proliferation of microorganisms may alter the chemical composition of the dialysate, resulting in dialysis acidosis (17). The dialysis fluid contains salts and organic waste products dialysed from the patient; during dialysis it is heated to body temperature, and thus it forms a good medium for a rapid microbial proliferation. Further the design of the dialysis equipment often favours microbial growth, the water supply system and the tubes leading the dialysis fluid to the monitors are easily

colonized, especially at sites where the tubes are connected and where the flow of the dialysate is low (2, 19). Chemical disinfection is to a great extent inefficient (19). Within recent years promising results have been obtained with heat decontamination (5, 18).

From 1974 to 1976 four new monitor types were tested in the haemodialysis centre at Odense University Hospital. Three of these could be disinfected by means of heat and one sterilized by autoclaving at 120°C for 40 minutes. This study describes the microbial contamination of these monitors, in comparison with four older chemically-disinfected monitor types, their microbial flora, and the degree of antibiotic resistance among the strains isolated.

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TABLE 1 Number of Microorganisms Isolated from the Monitors at the Start and End of the Dialyses

| Monitor type | log number of microorganisms | | | | | | | |
|--------------|------------------------------|----|------|------|-----------|-----------------|------|-----------|
| | Start of dialysis | | | | | End of dialysis | | |
| | T | N | mean | SD | range | mean | SD | range |
| A | 6½ | 19 | 3.40 | 1.76 | 0-5.59 | 5.27 | 0.87 | 3.30-6.50 |
| B | 6 | 12 | 3.89 | 0.69 | 3.06-4.83 | 4.89 | 0.86 | 3.89-6.45 |
| C | 5½ | 32 | 2.05 | 0.77 | 0.70-4.55 | 3.13 | 0.84 | 1.69-6.02 |
| D | 5½ | 18 | 0.62 | 0.74 | 0-2.08 | 2.03 | 1.57 | 0-5.21 |
| E | 4½ | 27 | 0.66 | 0.82 | 0-2.60 | 2.34 | 1.65 | 0-5.74 |
| F | 5½ | 15 | 1.83 | 0.53 | 0.95-2.58 | 1.82 | 0.39 | 1.15-2.38 |
| G | 5½ | 13 | 0.55 | 0.56 | 0-1.53 | 0.44 | 0.52 | 0-1.88 |
| H | 5½ | 21 | - | - | - | 0.61 | 1.05 | 0-3.60 |

T mean duration of the dialyses (hours)

N number of observations

SD standard deviation

- not examined

view of the short duration of the dialyses. The bacterial findings after several heat disinfections of this monitor type are shown in Table 2. Monitor F (the monitor with the weakest heat treatment programme) was significantly contaminated at the start of dialysis, but the concentration of microorganisms did not increase during dialysis. The same was true of monitor G.

TABLE 2 Results of 27 Heat Disinfections Performed in Monitor E

| | Number of specimens | Concentration/100 ml |
|------------|---------------------|----------------------|
| No growth | 23 | |
| Bacteria | 2 | 1 |
| Micrococci | 1 | >100 |
| Yeasts | 1 | 1 |

The recirculating single-pass monitors (A-C, disinfected with chloramine) were the most contaminated of all monitors tested, both before and after dialysis. In monitor A a negative linear correlation was registered between the number of microorganisms present originally and the increase during dialysis (Fig. 2). A similar correlation, though less marked, was observed in monitor B. The contamination of monitor D (disinfected with formaline) was within the range of the results obtained with the heat-treated monitors.

Table 3 shows the microorganisms isolated from the monitors at the end of the dialyses. Repeated

cultures revealed a characteristic flora for each monitor type.

Table 4 shows a biochemical characterization of *Enterobacteriaceae* isolated more than once at the end of dialysis. The isolated strains of *E. coli* and *C. freundii* belonged to the same biotypes. Strains of *K. pneumoniae* were identical, except for the citrate

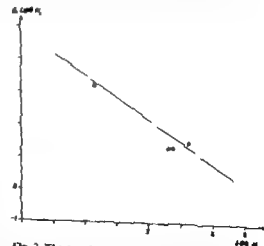


Fig. 2 The correlation between the number of microorganisms present at the start of dialysis and their increase during dialysis in monitor A.

Significance

N number of microorganisms ($\times 0.1$ ml) at the start of dialysis

$\Delta \text{LOG } N$ the increase during dialysis

○ dialyses lasting 5 or 6 hours

● dialyses lasting 7 or 8 hours

$r = -0.87$ $y = -0.68x + 4.18$

MATERIAL AND METHODS

The dialysis centre at Odense University Hospital consists of a main unit for centre dialysis (monitors A, B, D, E, F, G and H) and a separate training unit for home dialysis patients (monitor C).

The dialysis fluid used in the main unit was sterile, delivered in 200 litre plastic bags, either ready-mixed or as distilled water which was mixed with a concentrated salt solution in the monitors. From the plastic bags it was led to the monitors by a tube system, each monitor being supplied separately. In the training unit the water supply was deionized tap water.

Monitors A (Travenol RSP), B (Dasco) and C (Travenol CC) were of the recirculating single-pass type (15), in which the dialysate was recirculated through a coil dialyser and successively exchanged during dialysis. Monitors D (The Danish Sugar Factories), F (Gambro), G (Dyladel), and H (Nyctron) were of the single-pass type (15), in which the dialysate was pumped through a plate or capillary cartridge kidney and exhausted after a single pass. Monitor E (Rhodial) contained a fixed dialysate volume of 75 litres, which was recirculated through a plate dialyser. All dialysers were disposable units. The temperature of the dialysate was 38°C. The duration of the dialyses is shown in Table 1.

Disinfection after dialysis took place as follows: monitors A, B and C were flushed with 1% chloramine for 10 minutes and stored in this solution between the dialyses. Before the next dialysis they were flushed again for 5 minutes and then rinsed with tap water. Monitor D was disinfected with 2% formalin for 15 minutes and stored in this until the next dialysis. Before the start of dialysis it was rinsed with tap water. Monitors E, F, G and H were heat treated using demineralised water (monitor E: 92°C for 20 minutes, monitor F: 85°C for 20 minutes, monitor G: 85°C for 25 minutes both before and after dialysis, monitor H: autoclaving at 120°C for 40 minutes, the tubes leading the dialysate to and from the dialyser were stored in 1% phenosalol between the dialyses). In monitors G and H the dialysis fluid was heated temporarily to 80°C when entering the monitors.

Samples of dialysis fluid were collected at the start and end of dialysis treatment from the monitors described above. Monitor H was only examined at the end of dialysis as it proved technically difficult to collect specimens before dialysis. Monitor E was also examined after heat disinfection. All samples were post membrane dialysate. In the recirculating single-pass monitors they were collected from the top of the coil dialyser and in the single-pass monitors sampling was from the tube leading from the dialyser. The concentration of dialysate microorganisms was determined from colony counts on 5% blood agar plates inoculated with 0.1 ml from a ten-fold serial dilution in saline. Viable counts after heat treatment were determined from a volume of 100 ml, using membrane filters which were placed on 5% blood agar plates. The plates were left at room temperature for 72 hours before counting, and representative colonies were picked for identification (3, 8, 13, 14, 16). Biotyping of strains of *Klebsiella pneumoniae* was performed as described by Ørskov (20). Strains of

Citrobacter freundii, *Escherichia coli* and *Enterobacter cloacae* were subdivided according to the biochemical reactions given by Edwards & Ewing (6). They are shown in Table 3.

Antibiotic sensitivity tests were carried out for all strains isolated, using the tablet method (Neosensitab[®], Rosco, Taastrup, Denmark) as described earlier (11). Resistant strains had inhibition zone diameters corresponding to the following MIC's (µg/ml): sulphadiazide ≥ 15 , tetracyclines ≥ 4 , chloramphenicol ≥ 15 , streptomycin ≥ 20 , gentamycin ≥ 11 , polymyxins ≥ 20 , ampicillin ≥ 5 and carbenicillin ≥ 10 .

RESULTS

The microbial contamination of the monitors is shown in Table 1. Microorganisms could be isolated from all monitor types tested at the start of dialysis. The heat treated monitors (E-H) showed a wide range of contamination, monitors G and H (those with the most intensive heat-treatment programme) had the lowest degree of contamination of all monitors tested. In monitor H the degree of contamination increased during the course of the observation period (Fig. 1) - a pattern unique for this monitor type. Monitor E showed a relatively large increase in contamination during dialysis in

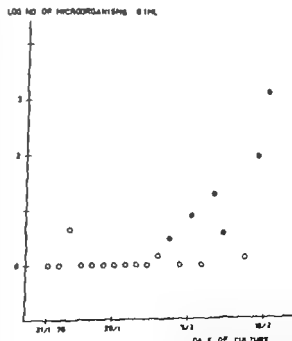


TABLE 5. Individual Antibiotic Resistance Traits among *Gram-negative* Bacteria Isolated at the End of the Dialyses

| | Number of strains resistant | | | | | | | | |
|---|-----------------------------|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|
| | N | Su | Tc | Ch | Po | St | Gc | Am | Ca |
| <i>Escherichia coli</i> | 9 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 9 | 9 |
| <i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i> | 18 | 17 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 18 | 18 |
| <i>Klebsiella oxytoca</i> | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| <i>Citrobacter freundii</i> | 12 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 12 | 10 |
| <i>Enterobacter cloacae</i> | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| <i>P. aeruginosa</i> | 60 | 46 | 1 | 4 | 0 | 9 | 0 | 60 | 11 |
| <i>P. pseudotuberculosis</i> (biotype 11) | 20 | 19 | 0 | 16 | 0 | 14 | 0 | 20 | 20 |
| Fluorescent <i>Pseudomonas</i> biotype 6 | 46 | 34 | 0 | 32 | 0 | 46 | 0 | 46 | 46 |
| Other fluorescent <i>Pseudomonas</i> | 5 | 2 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 5 |
| <i>P. maltophilia</i> | 15 | 1 | 11 | 0 | 0 | 15 | 15 | 15 | 15 |
| Other <i>Pseudomonas</i> | 31 | 7 | 2 | 0 | 3 | 5 | 2 | 25 | 22 |
| <i>Alcaligenes</i> | 11 | 0 | 0 | 10 | 0 | 11 | 11 | 9 | 9 |
| <i>Aeromonas</i> spp. | 12 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 12 | 10 |
| <i>Acinetobacter</i> | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 2 |
| <i>A. calcoaceticus</i> | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Flavobacterium</i> | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| <i>Agrobacterium</i> | 20 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 20 | 20 | 19 | 20 | 4 |

N, total number of strains

Su, sulphamonomide, Tc, tetracycline, Ch, chloramphenicol,

Po, polymyxins, St, streptomycin, Gc, gentamicin,

Am, ampicillin, Ca, carbenicillin

reaction, they belonged to Ørskov's biotypes 16 or 17. Among the strains of *E. cloacae* one was aberrant as regards the adenitol reaction; this was the strain isolated from monitor A.

Table 5 shows that few acquired antibiotic resistance characters were present in the more important potential human pathogens, i.e. *Enterobacteriaceae* and *P. aeruginosa*. The most striking characters were resistance to sulphamonomide and ampicillin in strains of *K. pneumoniae* and *E. coli* respectively. Resistance to gentamicin was not observed. Multiple antibiotic resistance characters could be demonstrated in several strains of the other species.

DISCUSSION

The heat-treated monitors examined in this study constituted a heterogeneous group, both as regards technical design and decontamination programme (E-H).

They were clearly superior to the chloramine-disinfected recirculating single-pass monitors (A-C), but scarcely less contaminated than the formalin-disinfected single-pass monitor D (Table 1). The

lowest degree of contamination during dialysis was obtained with monitors G and H. They were characterized by the most intensive heat treatment programmes and were the only monitors with a temporary heating of the dialysate to 80°C during dialysis, both were of the single-pass type. In monitor E the heat treatment *per se* was efficient (Table 2), but during dialysis microorganisms proliferated rapidly and could reach high values towards the end of dialysis. This may be ascribed to the design of the monitor as a batch recirculating system, unlike the other monitor types no dialysate is exhausted during dialysis, and the concentration of waste products thus increases, reaching the highest values towards the end of dialysis. Once contaminated this monitor type constitutes an ideal incubator. The results obtained with monitor F point to an inefficient heat-disinfection procedure. The lack of increase in contamination during dialysis in this monitor and in monitor G may be associated with their design as single-pass monitors, but may equally well be due to a slowly growing microbial flora (Table 3). The finding of heavy contamination of the chemically-disinfected recirculating single-pass monitors (A-C) corresponds to the results of previous studies (7, 18). In these monitors the concentration of microorganisms was

TABLE 3 *Microorganisms Isolated from the Monitors at the End of the Diatyses*

| Monitor type | A | B | C | D | E | F | G | H |
|--|----|----|----|----|----|----|---|----|
| Specimens contaminated | 19 | 12 | 32 | 17 | 25 | 15 | 9 | 10 |
| Number of isolates | | | | | | | | |
| <i>Escherichia coli</i> | 1 | 8 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i> | 14 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 3 |
| <i>Klebsiella oxytoca</i> | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Citrobacter freundii</i> | 11 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Enterobacter cloacae</i> | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 4 |
| <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> | 4 | 8 | 32 | 12 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 4 |
| <i>P. putida</i> (biotype 11) | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 15 | 3 | 0 | 0 |
| Fluorescent <i>Pseudomonas</i> biotype 6 | 16 | 12 | 1 | 10 | 7 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Other fluorescent <i>Pseudomonads</i> | 0 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>P. maltophilia</i> | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 15 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Other <i>Pseudomonads</i> | 4 | 3 | 18 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| <i>Alcaligenes</i> | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 9 | 2 |
| <i>Aeromonas formicae</i> | 7 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Xanthomonas</i> | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 |
| <i>Acinetobacter calcoaceticus</i> | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 |
| <i>Flavobacterium</i> | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Agrobacterium</i> | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 16 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Bacillus</i> | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Micrococcus</i> | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 0 |

TABLE 4 *Biochemical Characteristics of Enterobacteriaceae Isolated from the Monitors at the End of the Diatyses*

| | <i>K. pneumoniae</i> 18 strains | | | <i>C. freundii</i> 12 strains | | | <i>E. coli</i> 11 strains | | | <i>E. cloacae</i> 5 strains | | |
|-------------------|------------------------------------|-----|----|----------------------------------|-----|----|------------------------------|-----|---|--------------------------------|-----|---|
| | + | (+) | - | + | (+) | - | + | (+) | - | + | (+) | - |
| Adonitol | 18 | 0 | 0 | | | | | | | 1 | 0 | 4 |
| Dulcitol | 18 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 12 | 0 | 0 | 9 | 0 | 0 | 5 |
| Inositol | 18 | 0 | 0 | | | | | | | 0 | 0 | 5 |
| Lactose | | | | 12 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 9 | 0 | 4 | 1 | 0 |
| Raffinose | | | | 12 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 9 | | | |
| Rhamnose | | | | | | | 9 | 0 | 0 | | | |
| Sorbitose | 0 | 0 | 18 | | | | | | | | | |
| Sucrose | | | | 12 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 9 | | | |
| Malonate | | | | 0 | 0 | 12 | | | | 1 | 4 | 0 |
| Urease | 18 | 0 | 0 | 8 | 4 | 0 | | | | 5 | 0 | 0 |
| Lysine | | | | | | | 0 | 0 | 9 | | | |
| Arginine | | | | 12 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 9 | 0 | | | |
| Ornithine | | | | 0 | 0 | 12 | 9 | 0 | 0 | | | |
| D-tartrate | 0 | 0 | 18 | | | | | | | 0 | 0 | 5 |
| Citrate | 12 | 5 | 1 | | | | | | | 5 | 0 | 0 |
| Mucate | 18 | 0 | 0 | | | | | | | 5 | 0 | 0 |
| Hydrogen sulphide | | | | 12 | 0 | 0 | | | | | | |

+ positive within 2 days

(+) positive within 3 to 7 days

- negative after 7 days

TABLE 5. Individual Antibiotic Resistance Traits among Gram-negative Rods Isolated at the End of the Dialyses

| | Number of strains resistant | | | | | | | | |
|--|-----------------------------|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|
| | N | Sa | Tc | Ch | Po | St | Ge | Am | Ca |
| <i>Escherichia coli</i> | 9 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 9 | 9 |
| <i>Escherichia parvovorax</i> | 18 | 17 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 18 | 18 |
| <i>Shigella sonnei</i> | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| <i>Campylobacter freundii</i> | 12 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 12 | 10 |
| <i>Enterobacter cloacae</i> | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0 |
| <i>P. aeruginosa</i> | 60 | 46 | 1 | 4 | 0 | 9 | 0 | 60 | 11 |
| <i>P. putida</i> (biotype 11) | 20 | 19 | 0 | 16 | 0 | 14 | 0 | 20 | 20 |
| Fluorescent <i>Pseudomonas</i> biotype 6 | 46 | 34 | 0 | 32 | 0 | 46 | 0 | 46 | 46 |
| Other fluorescent <i>Pseudomonas</i> | 5 | 2 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 5 |
| <i>P. maltophilia</i> | 15 | 1 | 11 | 0 | 0 | 15 | 15 | 15 | 15 |
| Other <i>Pseudomonas</i> | 31 | 7 | 2 | 0 | 3 | 5 | 2 | 25 | 22 |
| <i>Acidobacter</i> | 11 | 0 | 0 | 10 | 0 | 11 | 11 | 9 | 9 |
| <i>Aeromonas formicosa</i> | 12 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 12 | 10 |
| <i>Yersinia</i> | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 2 |
| <i>A. calcoaceticus</i> | 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| <i>Flavobacterium</i> | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| <i>Aerobacter</i> | 20 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 20 | 20 | 19 | 20 | 4 |

N total number of strains.

Sa streptomycin, Tc tetracycline, Ch chloramphenicol.

Po polymyxins, St streptomycin, Ge gentamicin.

Am ampicillin, Ca carbenicillin.

reaction, they belonged to *Shigella* biotypes 16 or 17. Among the strains of *E. Coli* one was aberrant as regards the adonitol reaction, this was the strain isolated from monitor A.

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high from the start of dialysis, irrespective of whether the water supply was sterile dialysis fluid (monitor A and B) or deionized tap water (monitor C). The results obtained with monitor A (Fig. 2) indicate that these monitors were contaminated to a marginal degree at the end of dialysis, reaching a value of about 10^5 microorganisms per 0.1 ml dialysate, which is not far from the marginal value reached in stagnant dialysate (11). The degree of contamination and the repeated isolation of the same species (Table 3) and type (Table 4) from each monitor indicate that bacterial foci survive within the monitors between dialyses. The same may be true of the other monitor types. In particular monitor F but recontamination may also have occurred from outside, i.e. from the tubes leading the dialysate to the monitor. In monitor H the reused dialyser tubes were stored in a weak disinfectant. Probably they have become contaminated during the course of the observation period, thus being the focus of recontamination (Fig. 1) (12). The bacterial flora points to monitor A as a main source of contamination (Table 3 and 4).

The antibiotic sensitivity tests show that acquired resistance characters were rare among the potential human pathogens (Table 5). Among the other species the multiple antibiotic resistance characters probably reflect the natural state, e.g. the widespread resistance to the aminoglycosides, which was not observed among the potential human pathogens. Transmission of multiple resistance characters, as proposed by Favero *et al.* (7) seems to be only a minor problem. The results of this study indicate that the contamination of dialysis monitors is determined by several factors, including the design of the monitors, the decontamination procedures, the duration of the dialyses, and the flora contaminating the monitors. Heat treatment of monitors do not eliminate microbial proliferation during dialysis, but the introduction of monitor types with appropriate heat decontamination programmes may lower the level of microbial contamination.

I am grateful to the staff of the haemodialysis unit for their help with sampling and to Mrs. Tinne Borg, Statens Seruminstitut, for technical assistance.

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RAPID IDENTIFICATION OF GROUP A, B, C AND G BETA HAEMOLYTIC STREPTOCOCCI BY A MODIFICATION OF THE CO-AGGLUTINATION TECHNIQUE. COMPARISON OF RESULTS OBTAINED BY CO-AGGLUTINATION, FLUORESCENT ANTIBODY TEST, COUNTERIMMUNOELECTROPHORESIS AND PRECIPITIN TECHNIQUE

HEIKKI ARVILOMI, OUTI UURASMAA and ANNIKI NURIKKALA

Arvilomii, H., Uurasmaa, O. & Nurikkala, A. Rapid identification of group A, B, C and G beta-haemolytic streptococci by a modification of the co-agglutination technique. Comparison of results obtained by co-agglutination, fluorescent antibody test, counterimmunoelectrophoresis, and precipitation technique. *Acta path. microbiol. scand., Sect. B* 86: 107-111 1978.

A rapid modification of the co-agglutination (COA) technique for grouping A, B, C and G beta-haemolytic streptococci was developed. The results are obtained within three hours after inoculation from primary plates of 0.5 ml broth. This method was compared to the fluorescent antibody test (FA) and counterimmunoelectrophoresis (CIE), two other rapid methods available for serological grouping of streptococci. Of 71 recently isolated streptococcal strains from clinical sources, 70 were correctly grouped in COA, 63 in FA and 48 in CIE.

With commercial reagents COA compared favourably in accuracy to the other methods and can be recommended for routine serological grouping of beta-haemolytic streptococci in the clinical laboratory.

Key words: Beta-haemolytic streptococci, rapid identification, co-agglutination technique.

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Beta-haemolytic streptococci are among the most commonly occurring bacterial strains in clinical laboratories. Their identification does not usually pose problems. The presumptive grouping can be carried out with methods which are fairly well adapted to the routine work of the microbiological laboratory. One of these, and probably the most widely used, is Maitland's Bacitracin test (Maitland

1953), which differentiates group A from other streptococci on the basis of their different sensitivity to bacitracin. However, in a previous study on co-agglutination (COA) by one of us (Arvilomii 1976), the bacitracin test did not give satisfactory results. Thus, together with the observation of an unexpectedly high frequency of group B streptococci in the clinical material in our laboratory, prompted us to look into rapid methods of serological grouping of streptococci. We concentrated upon methods which 1) could be applied to material from primary blood agar plates, 2) could use commercial reagents, and 3) would provide results in a few hours. In this

high from the start of dialysis, irrespective of whether the water supply was sterile dialysis fluid (monitor A and B) or deionized tap water (monitor C). The results obtained with monitor A (Fig. 2) indicate that these monitors were contaminated to a marginal degree at the end of dialysis, reaching a value of about 10^4 microorganisms per 0.1 ml dialysate, which is not far from the marginal value reached in stagnant dialysate (11). The degree of contamination and the repeated isolation of the same species (Table 3) and type (Table 4) from each monitor indicate that bacterial foci survive within the monitors between dialyses. The same may be true of the other monitor types, in particular monitor F but recontamination may also have occurred from outside, i.e. from the tubes leading the dialysate to the monitor. In monitor H the reused dialyser tubes were stored in a weak disinfectant. Probably they have become contaminated during the course of the observation period, thus being the focus of recontamination (Fig. 1) (12). The bacterial flora points to monitor A as a main source of contamination (Table 3 and 4).

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containing beta-haemolytic streptococci from various clinical sources were analysed, 105 (60%) contained enough colonies for inoculating the broth. Of these, 5 (5%) failed to produce sufficient growth in 3 hours for the co-agglutination test. We also found that the streptococcal cultures can be heated at 100° C for 10 min without affecting the co-agglutination result. It is thus possible to work with failed suspension of streptococci if this is preferred. If the inoculum in the broth is not pure, some rapidly growing organisms might cause interference in the co-agglutination test. Therefore we tested some enterobacteria, staphylococci and also strains of alpha-haemolytic streptococci in the 3 hour co-agglutination test. Unexpected cross reactions may occur and lead to occasional false positive results as one *Klebsiella* strain reacted with G reagent. By careful subculturing and checking with gram staining this can be prevented.

Comparative study

71 strains of beta-haemolytic streptococci from various clinical sources were collected and grouped by precipitation. These strains were then used in a comparative study in which they were independently grouped by three rapid methods COA, FA and CIE. The results are given in Table 1. When the three methods were compared to the precipitation test which in this study served as a standard method, it appeared that a discrepancy was found in 1/71 cases in COA, 8/71 in FA and 3/71 in CIE. The results which were not identical in all these tests are collected in Table 2. It is of interest to note that the group G strain which reacted with both B and G reagents in COA did so also in CIE.

We noticed difficulties in grouping because of cross reactions. This is a disadvantage, which seems to be a more or less common feature to all the

TABLE 2. *Strains Giving Discrepant Results with One or More Techniques*

| Strain No | Precipitation | CA | FA | CIE |
|----------------------------|---------------|----|----|-----|
| 462 | A | A | AC | A |
| 714 | A | A | AC | A |
| 2461 | A | A | A | AC |
| 379 | B | B | C | B |
| 624 | B | B | C | B |
| 755 | B | B | C | B |
| 783 | B | B | G | B |
| 325 | G | G | CG | G |
| 336 | G | BG | G | BG |
| 1014 | G | G | G | B |
| 1019 | G | G | CG | G |
| No of inconclusive results | | 1 | 8 | 3 |

methods described in this paper. In the FA test, the group B antiserum had to be excluded because of cross reactions. We were unable to find a dilution which could differentiate group B streptococci from the others. Of group A antisera labelled with fluorescein, one (BBL) gave clearcut reactions and there were practically no cross reactions, while with the other there were many and the results obtained had to be discarded. Tables 1 and 2 show that most of the divergent results obtained with FA are apparently due to the cross reactions of group C antiserum. The antisera used in CIE gave plenty of cross reactions as well. This can probably be explained by the fact that the sera were prepared for capillary precipitation which does not detect as small amounts of cross reacting antibodies as the more sensitive CIE does.

TABLE 1. *Comparison of Co-agglutination, Fluorescent Antibody Test and Counter-immunoelectrophoresis to Precipitation*

| Precipitation | COA | | | | | FA | | | | | CIE | | | | |
|---------------|-----|----|----|---|-----------------|----|----|---|----|-----------------|-----|----|---|----|----|
| | A | B | C | G | NG ^a | A | B | C | G | NG | A | B | C | G | NG |
| A | 20 | 20 | | | | 18 | | | 2 | | 19 | | | | 1 |
| B | 79 | | 29 | | | | | 3 | 1 | 25 ^b | | 29 | | | |
| C | 4 | | | 4 | | | | 4 | | | | | 4 | | |
| G | 18 | | | | 17 | 1 | | | 16 | 2 | | 1 | | 16 | 1 |
| Total | 71 | 20 | 29 | 4 | 17 | 1 | 18 | 7 | 17 | 29 | 19 | 30 | 4 | 16 | 2 |

^a NG = non groupable

^b Group B specific FA reagent had to be excluded. It did not differentiate group B streptococci from other

study the co-agglutination technique, described by Christensen *et al.* (1973), was modified in order to obtain grouping results within a few hours. It is compared to the fluorescent antibody test (FA) and the counter-immunoelectrophoresis technique (CIE)

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Streptococcal strains were collected from the cultures of specimens sent to the Public Health Laboratory. The samples were cultured on sheep blood agar plates (Blood Agar Base, Oxoid Ltd London, England substituted with 7% defibrinated sheep blood) and incubated aerobically overnight. Colonies of beta haemolytic streptococci were subcultured on blood agar plates. These cultures were used in the comparative study described below.

Precipitation

To determine the Lancefield group the group specific carbohydrate was extracted by autoclaving (Rantz & Randall 1955) and tested by double immunodiffusion as described earlier (Arrilommi 1976).

Co-agglutination

The method (Christensen *et al.* 1973) was modified as described in the Results section and Fig. 1. Commercial reagents, Phadebact® Streptococcus Test (Pharmacia Diagnostics AB Uppsala, Sweden) with anti-A, B, C and G group specific activity were used. Trypsin was obtained from Difco (Trypsin 1.250 Difco Laboratories, Detroit, Michigan, USA).

Fluorescent Antibody Test

The method was essentially the one described earlier (Arrilommi 1976) except that instead of broth cultures, suspensions of beta-haemolytic colonies were made in a drop of saline on objective glass slides. Commercial fluorescein conjugated groups A, B, C and G antisera were obtained from Difco and group A antiserum from BBL (Maryland, USA).

Counter-immunoelectrophoresis

Streptococcal strains were inoculated into 2 ml of Todd Hewitt broth and incubated at 37°C water bath for 3 h. Carbohydrate extraction was performed by autoclaving as described earlier (Arrilommi 1976) and the extracts tested by CIE. In preliminary tests we could not obtain consistent grouping results by using cultures without polysaccharide extraction. A method described by Pesendorfer & Krassitzky (1970) was followed. Briefly 1% agarose (Ladubose A 37 L'Industrie biologique française S.A. Gennevilliers, France) in barbiturate buffer (0.13M pH 8.1) was used to prepare gel slabs of 17 × 100 × 100 mm size. Two rows of wells (Ø 3 mm) were punched 6 mm apart. The electrophoresis was run for 50 min at 50 V and 20–30 mA in a continuous buffer system with fourfold filter paper strips as bridges between the gel and the buffer vessels. The plates were inspected for precipitates immediately after the electrophoresis was stopped, and photographed for further reference. The antisera used were as follows: A, C and G from Difco and B from Behringwerke (Marburg, Germany).

RESULTS

Technical aspects

We tested several possible ways of obtaining a more rapid grouping result based on the existing co-agglutination method. Firstly direct co-agglutination of the colonies on the primary plates, according to Edwards & Larson (1974), did not work very well in our hands. Secondly colonies from the primary plates were suspended in a phosphate buffer on microscope slides and tested for co-agglutination. This technique gave inconsistent results as well. The outcome was not improved by trypsin treatment of the streptococcal suspension. Thirdly we studied the possibilities of shortening the incubation time after inoculation of Todd Hewitt broth. For this purpose the volume of the broth was reduced to 0.5 ml. Of 71 pure cultures, 31 grew in 2½ hours to provide sufficient antigen for the co-agglutination test.

The method thus developed is depicted in Fig. 1. Co-agglutination was carried out by placing a small drop of each reagent on a glass slide followed by a drop of broth culture. After rocking the slides for one minute the possible co-agglutination was recorded. The method was also tried in everyday practice. When 175 consecutive primary plates

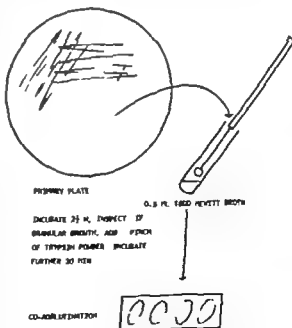


Fig. 1. Schematic representation of the modification of the co-agglutination technique.

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DISCUSSION

We have described a convenient modification of a method for serological grouping of streptococci in a clinical laboratory. That 24-hour incubation of broth cultures for a co-agglutination test is not necessary in the majority of cases has been recently reported by *Farrel & Amirak (1976)* and *Rosner (1977)* who used 4-hour incubation. Generally 3–10 colonies are needed for inoculation of the broth for a successful 3-hour test. The proportion of primary plates containing enough colonies varies depending on whether selective media are used, or whether plates containing only a few colonies are regarded as clinically significant. The proportion of 60% in the present study reflects the fact that we regarded even single colonies as significant and did not use selective media.

The methods of grouping streptococci are based on the pioneering work of *Lancefield (1933)* and have been extensively evaluated by *Facklam* in a recent review (1976). Classical capillary precipitin test and other precipitation techniques require the carbohydrate antigen to be extracted from the streptococci. There are several methods for carbohydrate extraction. However methods where this procedure can be omitted altogether are conceivably more appealing to the clinical microbiologist. Such methods are FA, COA and, to a certain extent, CIE, the latter having been shown to work with group B streptococci without extraction (*Hill et al 1975*). Our experience is that CIE does not work well without extraction. This also accords with other researchers (*Wadström et al 1974*). Therefore we share the view of *Facklam*, who could not see the advantage of CIE over capillary precipitin with extracts.

Immunofluorescence is used as a standard method to identify group A streptococci directly from throat swabs in many laboratories. It is a rapid method and fairly easy to perform, provided good antiserum is available. As noted in this study the quality of commercial antisera varies greatly. The problems with cross reactions have also been reported by other investigators (*Watson et al 1975*). Thus, commercial antisera of good quality seem to be rare. One apparent explanation may be the existence of true cross reactions, i.e. shared antigenic structure, which therefore make the elimination of cross reacting antibodies very difficult. Another explanation is the capacity of group A C and G streptococci to react nonspecifically with rabbit IgG (*Kronvall 1973*, *Christensen & Kronvall 1974*) by binding to the Fc part of this immunoglobulin. Quite recently this disadvantage was overcome by *Cars et al. (1975)* who used F(ab)₂ fragments in their FA tests with good results. These reagents, however are not commercially available. Some of the characteristics of the three methods are collected in Table 3. If the aim is to have a rapid and reliable method of grouping streptococci, CIE would be excluded because of the need for antigen extraction. COA and FA are therefore left for comparison. COA seems to be at least as accurate as FA. An FA test can be carried out rapidly but COA too, gives results in a few hours. The manipulation needed with both tests is insignificant. Assessment of co-agglutination on microscope slides is, however regarded as easier by many people than grading the intensity of fluorescence. No special equipment is needed for COA. The costs of these methods depend on the number of tests run each day and are difficult to estimate, but they can be lowered considerably by the economical use of the reagents.

TABLE 3 Summary of the Properties of Co-agglutination, Fluorescent Antibody Test and Counter-immunoelectrophoresis in Quick Grouping of Beta haemolytic Streptococci

| | Accuracy | Extraction | Equipment | Time | Work |
|-------------------------------|----------|------------|-----------|------------|------|
| Co-agglutination | good | no | — | 3 h | + |
| Fluorescent Antibody | variable | no | ++ | 10 min–2 h | + |
| Counter-immunoelectrophoresis | good* | yes | + | 4–5 h | ++ |

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THE EFFECT OF COLOSTRUM AND COLOSTRAL ANTIBODY SIgA ON THE PHYSICO-CHEMICAL PROPERTIES AND PHAGOCYTOSIS OF *ESCHERICHIA COLI* O86

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Magnusson, K.E., Stendahl, O., Stjernström, I. & Edebo, L. The effect of colostrum and colostrum antibody SIgA on the physico-chemical properties and phagocytosis of *Escherichia coli* O86. Acta path. microbial. scand. Sect. B, 86 113-120 1978.

A hydrophobic effect of human colostrum and colostrum antibody SIgA binding on *Escherichia coli* O86 has been demonstrated by hydrophobic interaction chromatography on Octyl-Sepharose and partition in a polymer two-phase system containing dextran, poly(ethylene glycol) and poly(ethylene glycol)-palmitate. Furthermore, antibody SIgA binding reduced the negative surface charge of the *E. coli* bacteria. The reaction between centrifuged but not further purified colostrum and bacteria yielded a complex which, compared to bacteria alone, showed decreased negative and increased positive surface charges, the latter being sensitive to papain. Binding of SIgA or colostrum to *E. coli* showed no definite effect on the attachment to and phagocytosis by polymorphonuclear cells *in vitro*. The effects observed are discussed in relation to the structure of SIgA.

Key words: Colostrum antibody SIgA; *Escherichia coli* O86; physico-chemical properties; phagocytosis.

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The distribution of immunoglobulins in the body varies according to the immunoglobulin class. It has long been known that human colostrum is especially rich in secretory IgA (SIgA, 7,8,21). As well as in the mammary glands, SIgA is synthesized primarily in relation to different mucous membranes and external secretions at sites which are connected directly with the outside world and thus liable to contamination. In these sites it is relatively more abundant than IgG, whereas in the blood and internal secretions IgG dominates (21).

Binding of antibody IgG to microorganisms and other particles usually leads to complement activation and opsonization apparently aimed at destruction of the antigen. No such function is known for SIgA. As antiserum (23) and antibody IgG (5,17-20) react with hydrophobic microorganisms their surfaces become more hydrophobic, whereas the binding of SIgA seems to have an opposite effect

(6). However with methods then available, the physico-chemical nature of the effect of SIgA could not be analyzed accurately. The present investigation employs two methods viz partitioning in an aqueous two-phase system and hydrophobic interaction chromatography (9) for direct demonstration of tendency to charge and hydrophobic interaction. To obtain specificity in the reaction between antibody SIgA and bacteria, the cross-reaction between human blood group antigen B and *Escherichia coli* O86 was employed, and colostrum from non-B mothers was collected as a source of antibody SIgA (6).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Preparation of Colostrum SIgA

Colostrum was collected within 1-2 days post partum. It was centrifuged 2-3 times at 2400 G for 20 min. The fat at the top of the tube was removed and the sediment

at 4°C after for 20 s after which 2 ml 3.4% (w/v) PBS was added. The cells were washed twice in Krebs-Ringer phosphate buffer without Ca^{2+} . The percentage of PMN cells was not below 70% when used in the experiment. About 2×10^7 cells in 3 ml of the complete Krebs-Ringer phosphate buffer with Mg^{2+} and Ca^{2+} and 10 mM glucose (KRG) were added to tissue-culture petri-dishes (50×13 mm, Flow Laboratory) with five Millipore filters (HAWPO 1300 Millipore). The cells were allowed to settle for at least 30 min. Non-adhering material was removed by decanting and washing twice with KRG. 4 ml of KRG, with or without 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ Cycloheximide B (Cyt B, EGA-Chemie KG 79 4 Steinheim bei Heidenheim, Brestz, West Germany) was added and the dishes were incubated at 37°C for 20 min. Finally 5 ml of the suspension with ^3H -labelled bacteria ($2 \times 10^6/\text{ml}$) in PBS was added. After mixing, a sample (0.5 ml) was withdrawn and the zero-time filter taken. Filters were subsequently removed at 30, 60 (a) and 120 min, washed gently in three beakers with saline, dried, and finally put into a scintillation vial with 5 ml Aquasol (NEN) and 2 ml water. Controls without PMN cells were made to study the adhesion of the bacteria to the filters. Two parallel experiments were carried out.

Immunoassay

Bacteria adsorbed with defatted colostrum were treated for 30 min at room temperature with FITC-conjugated anti-human IgA (N elcomel), IgG (SBL, Braebel), IgM (N elcomel) and C3 (N elcomel). They were washed once in PBS before being put onto microscope slides and examined in incident light with Zeiss Standard RA microscope. Two KP 500 filters and barrier filter 455 were used for excitation and condenser 510 and barrier filter 528 for emission.

Partition in Two-phase Systems

In the basal two-phase system *E. coli* O86 accumulated mainly at the interface and in the dextran-rich bottom phase (Table 1-3) and to a small extent in the PEG-rich top phase. Since *E. coli* O86 was transported into the top phase by TMA-PEG but not by S-PEG (Table 1-3) negative charges seem to dominate the electrostatic properties of the bacterial surface. The bacteria were transported to the top phase also by P-PEG this indicating accessibility of hydrophobic groups at the bacterial surface. However in the latter case there was a discrepancy between experiments as regards the extent of the affinity. This was either considered as being due to changed growth conditions or solubility of P-PEG at partitioning. Reaction of *E. coli* O86 with colostrum reduced the partition to the bottom phase slightly in the basal two-phase system and also reduced the transposition by P-PEG and TMA-PEG thus indicating loss of or reduced accessibility of hydrophobic and negatively charged surface structures. The increased effect by S-PEG showed the acquisition of positively charged groups (Table 1).

After purification of SIgA from colostrum, IgG and IgM were not detected by immunodiffusion or by nephelometry. Exposure of *E. coli* to the SIgA preparation increased the partition to the bottom phase in the basal system (Table 2). The presence of TMA-PEG or P-PEG in the phase system had less

TABLE 1 Agglutination Partitioning (a) of *E. coli* O86 Sensitized with Colostrum (b) Expressed as percentage Bacteria in Top (T) and Bottom (B) Phase

| Fraction PEG-solubilization of solid | O86 | | O86 + colostrum | |
|--------------------------------------|-----|----|-----------------|----|
| | T | B | T | B |
| None | 3 | 44 | 1 | 18 |
| TMA-PEG4/TMA-PEG + PEG3 = 0.125 | 65 | 15 | 46 | 7 |
| S-PEG4/S-PEG = 0.125 | 3 | 34 | 57 | 1 |
| P-PEG3/P-PEG + PEG = 0.04 | 26 | 26 | 15 | 16 |

^a One representative experiment (three experiments performed)

^b Immunoglobulin content not determined

^c Bacteria labelled with $\text{Na}_2^{51}\text{CrO}_4$

^d bis-transterky lactose-poly (ethyl sebacetylcol)

^e bis-methyl-poly (ethyl sebacetylcol)

^f poly (ethyl sebacetylcol)-palmitate

discarded. The interfacial liquid was frozen at -85°C until use. It was used as such either for sensitization of bacteria or for further preparation of SigA. Except for the initial extra procedure to remove fat, the flow sheet for isolation of SigA proposed by Kobayashi (12, see also 8) was followed. The purification was checked by immunodiffusion (Ouchterlony) with anti-human serum and antisera specific for the secretory component (SC) and the α -, γ - and μ -chains (Behringwerke AG Marburg, Lahn, West Germany or DAKO-Immunoglobulins A/S Copenhagen, Denmark). Only fractions were collected which gave precipitation lines with anti SC, anti- α -chain, and anti-human whole serum and not with the other sera. The pooled fractions were dialysed against phosphate buffered saline, pH = 7.3 (PBS), and then stored at -85°C . The concentrations of IgA, IgG and IgM were determined either by the Mancini technique (15) or by nephelometry (13). With these techniques, the actual concentration of SigA was probably underestimated by a three to four fold factor (7) since SigA was not used for calibration.

Bacteria

The *E. coli* O86 was kindly supplied by Dr F. Orskov (Statens Seruminstitut, Copenhagen, Denmark). The bacteria were grown overnight (16 h) at 37°C in 10 ml of the following enriched medium: glucose 1 g, $\text{Na}_2\text{HPO}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ 0.6 g, NaCl 1.8 g, Bacto-Peptone (Difco) 10 g, beef extract (Difco) 5 g and deionized water 1000 ml. The pH was adjusted to 7.4. When metabolic labelling was used, 10 or 25 μl of (3,4,5) ^3H leucine (NET 460, NEN, West Germany) were pipetted into the 10 ml of the cultivation medium. Before use, the bacteria were washed four times in PBS. Labelling of bacteria with $\text{Na}_2^{51}\text{CrO}_4$ has been described elsewhere (16). The radioactivity was measured in a gamma scintillation counter (Inter technique SA, Plaisir, France).

Sensitization of Bacteria with Colostrum and SigA

The bacteria ($1.5-2.0 \times 10^9$) were mixed with 1 ml defatted colostrum, incubated for 10 min, and then centrifuged at 2500 g for 20 min at room temperature. The pellet was resuspended and washed once in PBS. In the experiments with purified colostrum SigA, $1.5-2.0 \times 10^9$ bacteria were sensitized for 60 min at 37°C and then washed once in PBS. They were quantified by the absorbance at 650 nm as calibrated with viable count.

Two phase Partitioning

A two-phase system (1) was prepared from stock solutions of 20% (w/w) poly(ethyleneglycol) 6000 (=PEG; Carbowax 6000, Union Carbide, New York, N.Y.), 20% (w/w) dextran T 500 (Pharmacia Fine Chemicals AB, Uppsala, Sweden), 0.1 M tris(hydroxymethyl) aminomethane buffer (=tris, pH = 7.0) and distilled water. The basal system contained 4.4% (w/w) PEG and 6.2% (w/w) dextran in 0.03 M Tris buffer. It was allowed to equilibrate at 4°C overnight in a separation funnel. Then the bottom phase (rich in dextran) and the top phase (rich in PEG) were collected

and stored separately at 4°C . To prepare phase systems for the partitioning studies, 2 ml of the bottom and 2 ml of the top phase were pipetted into graded test tubes. For tests with hydrophobic PEG, 0.2 ml of PEG esterified with palmitic acid (=PEG-palmitate, PEG) dissolved in PBS (0.13 mmol palmitic acid per g polymer-1) was added. The concentrations of PEG are given in connection with the results. In the systems with charged PEG, 12.5% of the PEG had been exchanged with either positively charged PEG bis-trimethylammonium ($(\text{CH}_3)_3\text{N}^+$ -PEG) (=TMA-PEG) or negatively charged PEG bis-sulphate (SO_3^- -PEG) (=S-PEG) (10) already in the preparation of the stock solutions.

0.1 ml of a suspension of bacteria was added to the graded tubes with the different phase systems, and the tubes were inverted (20 times) for mixing. They were then kept at 4°C for 45 min for separation of the phases. After reading the volumes of the bottom phase and the total system, 0.5 ml aliquots were withdrawn from the two phases. After mixing with a Vortex homogenizer, 0.5 ml was taken from the rest containing the material adhering to the interface. Quantification of the bacteria was made either by gamma-scintillation counter (Inter technique SA, Plaisir, France) or by beta-scintillation counter (Isocap 300, Searle-Nuclear, Chicago, Ill. USA), as indicated in the captions to the tables. The distribution of bacteria was then calculated from volumes of the phases and concentration of bacteria in the samples taken.

Hydrophobic Interaction Chromatography

The interaction with hydrophobic column material (9) was investigated by adsorption to and elution from Octyl-Sephacrose[®] (Pharmacia Fine Chemicals, Uppsala, Sweden). Characteristics such as bed volume, flow rate and composition of the eluant are given along with the results and in the captions accompanying the figures. A column K15/10 (Pharmacia Fine Chemicals) was used throughout the investigation. The elution pattern was read photometrically (at 650 nm) or by radioactivity which required in total about 101% and 103-104 bacteria, respectively. In all experiments the bacteria were suspended in a 0.01 M phosphate buffer (pH = 6.8) with 1 M $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ and added to a column equilibrated with the same buffer. Elution was made by decreasing the concentration of $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ (from 1M to 0M) stepwise and concurrently increasing the concentration of Triton X-100 (from 0 to 0.1% v/v). No aggregation of the samples was observed before application onto the column.

In vitro Assay of Phagocytosis

Polymorphonuclear neutrophils (PMN cells) were obtained from guinea pigs after injection of 20 ml 0.1% (w/w) glycogen solution intraperitoneally (16, 17). The cells were collected 16 h later by rinsing the intraperitoneal cavity with saline containing heparin (15 IU/ml, Vitrum, Stockholm, Sweden). The cells were then washed in Krebs Ringer phosphate buffer with 10 mM glucose but without Ca^{2+} , pH = 7.2. Contaminating erythrocytes were lysed by resuspending the pellet in 6

in distilled water for 20 s after which 2 ml 3.4% (w/v) PBS was added. The cells were washed twice in Krebs-Lager phosphate buffer without Ca^{2+} . The percentage of P₁N cells was not below 70% when used in the experiments. About 2×10^7 cells in 3 ml of the complete Krebs Ringer phosphate buffer with Mg^{2+} and Ca^{2+} and 10 mM glucose (KRG) were added to tissue-culture petri-dishes (50×13 mm, Flow Laboratory) in five Millipore filters (HAWPO 1300 Millipore). The cells were allowed to settle for at least 30 min. Non-adsorbed material was removed by decanting and washing twice with KRG. 4 ml of KRG, with or without 10 μM of Cyclohexan B (Cyt. B, EGA-Chemie KG 774, Steinheim bei Hendenheim, Breuss, West Germany) was added and the dishes were incubated at 37°C for 20 min. Finally 5 ml of the suspension with 10⁷ labelled bacteria (2×10^7 /ml) in PBS was added. After 30 min, a sample (0.5 ml) was withdrawn and the tissue-culture filter taken. Filters were subsequently removed at 30, 60 (a) and 120 min, washed gently in three beakers with saline, dried, and finally put into a scintillation vial with 5 ml Aquasol (NEN) and 2 ml water. Controls without P₁N cells were made to study the adsorption of the bacteria to the filters. Two parallel experiments were carried out.

Immunofluorescence

Bacteria sensitized with defatted colostrum were treated for 30 min at room temperature with FITC-conjugated anti-human IgA (Wakochem), IgG (SBL, 5% edent), IgM (Wakochem) and C3 (Wakochem). They were washed once in PBS before being put onto microscope slides and examined at incident light with Zeiss Standard RA microscope. Two KP 500 filters and barrier filter 455 was used for excitation and condenser 510 and barrier filter 578 for emission.

RESULTS

Partition in Two-phase Systems

In the basal two-phase system *E. coli* O86 accumulated mainly at the interface and in the dextran-rich bottom phase (Table 1-3) and to a small extent in the PEG-rich top phase. Since *E. coli* O86 was transposed into the top phase by TMA PEG but not by S-PEG (Table 1-3), negative charges seem to dominate the electrostatic properties of the bacterial surface. The bacteria were transposed to the top phase also by P-PEG this indicating accessibility of hydrophobic groups at the bacterial surface. However in the latter case there was a discrepancy between experiments as regards the extent of the affinity. This was either considered as being due to changed growth conditions or solubility of P-PEG at partitioning. Reaction of *E. coli* O86 with colostrum reduced the partition to the bottom phase slightly in the basal two-phase system and also reduced the transposition by P-PEG and TMA PEG thus indicating loss of or reduced accessibility of hydrophobic and negatively charged surface structures. The increased effect by S-PEG showed the acquisition of positively charged groups (Table 1).

After purification of SIgA from colostrum, IgG and IgM were not detected by immunodiffusion or by nephelometry. Exposure of *E. coli* to the SIgA preparation increased the partition to the bottom phase in the basal system (Table 2). The presence of TMA PEG or P-PEG in the phase system had less

TABLE 1. Aqueous Biphasic Partitioning of *E. coli* O86 Sensitized with Colostrum (a) Expressed as percentage Bacteria (b) in Top (T) and Bottom (B) Phase

| Phase PEG-saturation of total PEG in phase system | O86 | | O86 + colostrum | |
|---|-----|----|-----------------|----|
| | T | B | T | B |
| % | | | | |
| TMA-PEG/(TMA-PEG + PEG) = 0.125 | 3 | 44 | 1 | 18 |
| S-PEG/(S-PEG + PEG) = 0.125 | 65 | 15 | 46 | 7 |
| P-PEG/(P-PEG + PEG) = 0.04 | 3 | 34 | 57 | 1 |
| | 26 | 26 | 15 | 16 |

- a One representative experiment (three experiments performed)
- b Immunoglobulin content not determined
- c Bacteria labelled with ^{125}I -CrO₄
- d tri-n-butylamine-poly (ethylacrylate)
- e tri-n-butylamine-poly (ethylacrylate)
- f poly (ethylacrylate)-methacrylate

TABLE 2. *Biphasic Partitioning*^(a) of *E. coli* O86 Sensitized with SigA (40 µg/ml) Expressed as Percentage (\pm Range) Bacteria^(b) in Top (T) and Bottom (B) Phase

| Fraction PEG-substitution of total PEG in phase system | O86 | | O86 + SigA | |
|--|------------|------------|------------|------------|
| | T | B | T | B |
| None | 4 \pm 1 | 29 \pm 1 | 5 \pm 4 | 52 \pm 2 |
| TMA PEG/(TMA PEG + PEG) = 0.125 | 73 \pm 1 | 4 \pm 0 | 7 \pm 1 | 29 \pm 5 |
| S-PEG/(S-PEG + PEG) = 0.125 | 1 \pm 0 | 28 \pm 3 | 1 \pm 0 | 35 \pm 2 |
| P PEG/(P PEG + PEG) = 0.04 | 8 \pm 1 | 24 \pm 0 | 1 \pm 1 | 45 \pm 1 |

a) Calculated from two experiments (two more experiments performed with another colostrum sample)

b) Bacteria labelled with (3,4,5)³H leucine

effect on bacteria which had reacted with SigA than on untreated bacteria, thus indicating a less negatively charged and less hydrophobic surface after coating with SigA. S-PEG had no significant influence, thus possibly reflecting that the positive surface charge obtained with colostrum was due to binding of material other than SigA. In order to ascertain whether the colostrum-derived material could be removed by enzyme treatment, colostrum sensitized *E. coli* O86 were washed and incubated at pH 1.5-4 for 2 h at 37° C with pepsin (Sigma, 5

mg/ml in 0.1 M sodium acetate buffer Table 3). As in Table 1 colostrum treatment of the bacteria increased their partition to the interface in the basal two-phase system, increased the transposition to the top phase by S-PEG and almost annihilated the transposing effect of P PEG (Table 3). The affinity for S-PEG was lost after pepsin treatment pH 4 whereas in the basal system and in the system with P PEG the partition was almost unchanged. Pepsin treatment at pH 1.5 caused the partition to return close to the level of non-sensitized bacteria.

TABLE 3. *Effect of Pepsin at Different pH Values*^(a) on Aqueous Biphasic Partitioning^(b) of *E. coli* O86 Sensitized with Colostrum^(c) Expressed as Percentage Bacteria^(d) in Top (T) and Bottom (B) Phase

| Fraction PEG-substitution of total PEG in phase system | Phase | O86 | | | O86 + colostrum | | | |
|--|-------|-------------|---------------|--------------|-----------------|------|------|--------|
| | | native bact | pepsin pH 1.5 | no treatment | pepsin | | | |
| | | | | | pH 4 | pH 3 | pH 2 | pH 1.5 |
| None | T | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 |
| | B | 77 | 78 | 18 | 20 | 23 | 28 | 70 |
| TMA PEG/(TMA PEG + PEG) = 0.125 | T | 56 | 57 | 58 | 71 | 73 | 80 | 86 |
| | B | 28 | 18 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 13 |
| S-PEG/(S-PEG + PEG) = 0.125 | T | 2 | 1 | 65 | 10 | 3 | 2 | 2 |
| | B | 73 | 78 | 11 | 10 | 20 | 24 | 69 |
| P PEG/(P PEG + PEG) = 0.04 | T | 12 | 11 | 11 | 10 | 16 | 18 | 15 |
| | B | 44 | 46 | 37 | 23 | 22 | 25 | 33 |

a) 37° C 2 h

b) One representative experiment (Three experiments performed)

c) Immunoglobulin content not determined

d) Bacteria labelled with Na₂⁵¹CrO₄ overnight at 22° C

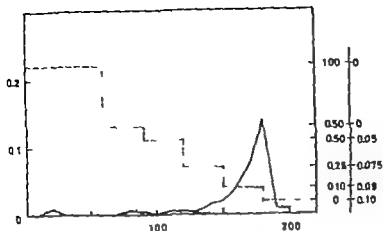


Fig. 1 Hydrophobic interaction chromatography of *E. coli* O86a1 sensitized with colostrominSM on Octyl-Sepharose[®]. Ordinate (left) Absorbance, 650 nm; (right) Concentrations of $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ (M, left) and Triton X-100 (% v/v, right) in each elution buffer (0.01 M phosphate, pH = 6.8)

Abcissa: Elution volume (ml)

% of bacteria in sample: 1.5×10^{10} in 1.5 ml 1 M $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$. Bed volume 28.3 ml. Flow rate 60 ml/h. Temperature 22° C. (—) O86, (---) O86 + colostromin, (---) elution gradient. ⁵¹Immunoglobulin content not determined.

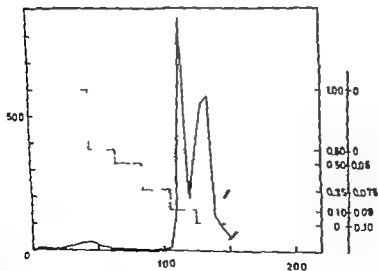


Fig. 2 Hydrophobic interaction chromatography of *E. coli* O86 sensitized with SIgA (280 µg/ml) on Octyl-Sepharose[®].

Ordinate (left) Counts per min (cpm); (right) Concentrations of $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ (M, left) and Triton X-100 (% v/v, right) in each elution buffer (0.01 M phosphate, pH = 6.8)

Abcissa: Elution volume (ml)

% of bacteria in sample: 5×10^8 in 0.5 ml 1 M $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ (3.4,5) ¹²⁵I-labeled. Bed volume 77.5 ml. Flow rate 75 ml/h. Temperature 22° C. (—) O86, (---) O86 + SIgA, (---) elution gradient.

TABLE 2 *Biphasic Partitioning* ^(a) of *E. coli* O86 Sensitized with SigA (40 µg/ml) Expressed as Percentage (± Range) Bacteria^(b) in Top (T) and Bottom (B) Phase

| Fraction PEG-substitution of total PEG in phase system | O86 | | O86 + SigA | |
|--|--------|--------|------------|--------|
| | T | B | T | B |
| None | 4 ± 1 | 29 ± 1 | 5 ± 4 | 52 ± 2 |
| TMA PEG/(TMA PEG + PEG) = 0.125 | 73 ± 1 | 4 ± 0 | 7 ± 1 | 29 ± 5 |
| S-PEG/(S-PEG + PEG) = 0.125 | 1 ± 0 | 28 ± 3 | 1 ± 0 | 35 ± 2 |
| P-PEG/(P-PEG + PEG) = 0.04 | 8 ± 1 | 24 ± 0 | 1 ± 1 | 45 ± 1 |

^{a)} Calculated from two experiments (two more experiments performed with another colostrum sample)

^{b)} Bacteria labelled with (3,4,5)³H-leucine

effect on bacteria which had reacted with SigA than on untreated bacteria, thus indicating a less negatively charged and less hydrophobic surface after coating with SigA. S-PEG had no significant influence, thus possibly reflecting that the positive surface charge obtained with colostrum was due to binding of material other than SigA. In order to ascertain whether the colostrum-derived material could be removed by enzyme treatment, colostrum sensitized *E. coli* O86 were washed and incubated at pH 1.5–4 for 2 h at 37° C with pepsin (Sigma, 5

mg/ml in 0.1 M sodium acetate buffer; Table 3). As in Table 1 colostrum treatment of the bacteria increased their partition to the interface in the basal two-phase system, increased the transposition to the top phase by S-PEG and almost annihilated the transposing effect of P-PEG (Table 3). The affinity for S-PEG was lost after pepsin treatment pH 4 whereas in the basal system and in the system with P-PEG the partition was almost unchanged. Pepsin treatment at pH 1.5 caused the partition to return close to the level of non-sensitized bacteria.

TABLE 3 *Effect of Pepsin at Different pH Values* ^(a) on Aqueous Biphasic Partitioning^(b) of *E. coli* O86 Sensitized with Colostrum^(c) Expressed as Percentage Bacteria^(d) in Top (T) and Bottom (B) Phase

| Fraction PEG-substitution of total PEG in phase system | Phase | O86 | | | O86 + colostrum | | | |
|--|-------|-------------|---------------|--------------|-----------------|------|------|--------|
| | | native bact | pepsin pH 1.5 | no treatment | pepsin | | | |
| | | | | | pH 4 | pH 3 | pH 2 | pH 1.5 |
| None | T | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 |
| | B | 77 | 78 | 18 | 20 | 23 | 28 | 70 |
| TMA PEG/(TMA PEG + PEG) = 0.125 | T | 56 | 57 | 58 | 71 | 73 | 80 | 86 |
| | B | 28 | 18 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 4 | 13 |
| S-PEG/(S-PEG + PEG) = 0.125 | T | 2 | 1 | 65 | 10 | 3 | 2 | 2 |
| | B | 73 | 78 | 11 | 10 | 20 | 24 | 69 |
| P-PEG/(P-PEG + PEG) = 0.04 | T | 12 | 11 | 11 | 10 | 16 | 18 | 15 |
| | B | 44 | 46 | 37 | 23 | 22 | 25 | 33 |

^{a)} 37° C 2 h

^{b)} One representative experiment (Three experiments performed)

^{c)} Immunoglobulin content not determined

^{d)} Bacteria labelled with Na₂⁵¹CrO₄ overnight at 22° C

DISCUSSION

In previous experiments on the effect of colostrum SlgA on the partition of *E. coli* O86 II was shown that antibody SlgA reduced the negative charge of the bacteria (6). In this report two newly developed methods, viz. aqueous two-phase systems with added hydrophobically substituted polymers (11) and hydrophobic interaction chromatography (9), have been employed for direct examination of the hydrophobic/hydrophilic properties of *E. coli* O86 sensitized with colostrum or SlgA.

A general drawback in using colostrum for sensitization or as a source of SlgA is the limited amount of colostrum obtainable from one donor. This greatly reduces the possibility of making repeated experiments on the same lot of material (see, for instance, Tables 1 and 3).

As demonstrated previously (6), sensitization with colostrum reduced the negative charge of *E. coli* and added positive charges, so that influence on the partition was reduced for TBA-PEG and increased for S-PEG. By contrast, colostrum SlgA reduced the negative charge without acquisition of positive groups, thus indicating shielding of the bacterial charge and little own charge of bound SlgA itself. Since the positive charge effect of colostrum was lost after pepsin treatment at pH 2-4, a peptidecontaining substance in colostrum seems to have become involved with the bacteria and SlgA. After pepsin treatment at pH = 1.5 most of the effect of colostrum was abolished (Table 3). We have not investigated further whether this was due to digestion, denaturation or elution. Both in partition experiments with PEG-palmitate and in hydrophobic interaction chromatography on Octyl-Sepharose, *E. coli* showed a tendency to hydrophobic interaction. After treatment with colostrum or SlgA, this property was repaired to a large extent (Tables 1 & 2, Figs 1 & 2). This change might be a consequence of, for instance, (a) a rearrangement of surface entities of the bacteria or (b) the physicochemical properties of the bound SlgA molecule. Rearrangement within the outer bacterial membrane seems less likely to be responsible for the change in physico-chemical properties, since the temperature during the experiments was rather low (about 22° C) and the effect of antibody SlgA was opposite to the hydrophobic effect of antibody IgG (17-20). The functions of the Fab portions of SlgA and IgG are similar although SlgA is tetrameric and IgG dimeric with respect to Fab. However, there are great differences between the other parts of SlgA and IgG. A model of the three dimensional structure of IgG has recently been proposed, largely on the basis of amino acid sequence analysis and X

ray crystallography (3). The structure of SlgA is less well known, but its composition of two IgA molecules joined by a J-chain at the Fc terminals and the secretory component (SC) coiled around the two opposed Fc fragments has become established (4,8,21). As molecules with the capacity to produce gross hydrophilic effects, carbohydrate structures are of primary interest. There is a marked difference in the carbohydrate concentration between IgG and SlgA, 2-3% and 10-12.5% respectively. Further, more human IgA is more easily soluble in water than IgG, which is a direct measure of hydrophilicity (11, 24). There is also a difference with respect to localization of the carbohydrate in the Ig molecules. In IgG the oligosaccharide site is in segment b of the C_γ2 domain. Thus, most of it seems to be localized between the two H chains of the molecule so that little is exposed to the surface of the molecule (3). In the IgA-oligosaccharide site of the C_α2 domain, the carbohydrate is supposed to point outwards from the IgA molecule, and there are also additional sites in the hinge region and in the tail piece where they are also likely to be exposed (3). For SlgA, the model described previously suggests a great influence of the SC (4) on the surface of a particle sensitized with antibody SlgA. Since the carbohydrate concentration of the SC, 15.6% (12) and 11.6% (22), is higher than for other constituents of SlgA, we suggest that it is mainly responsible for the hydrophilic effect observed (Fig. 1 & 2, Table 1 & 2).

It has been proposed that the biological function of SlgA is to eliminate antigen from mucosal tissue by preventing uptake (2,8). However the effect of colostrum and antibody SlgA on *E. coli* O86 with respect to attachment and phagocytosis was not significant. Rather than a dynoposonizing effect, an opsonizing effect by SlgA was observed. Three main reasons for this observation may be considered: (a) *E. coli* O86 is too poorly phagocytosed in the absence of antibody to allow clear-cut demonstration of a possible dynoposonizing effect by SlgA. (b) Contamination of the SlgA preparation with small quantities of IgG or IgM might obscure the effect of SlgA (2,5); (c) SlgA does not affect phagocytosis but causes the bacteria to become mucophilic. Affinity of SlgA for different components of mucus such as the glycoprotein mucin, amylase and lactoferrin, is known from frustrations in separation work (8). These propositions must be challenged further experimentally.

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TABLE 4 *Effect of Colostrum^{a)} on Phagocytosis (% of Added Activity per Filter^{b)}) of E. coli O86^{c)} by PMN Cells and Adhesion to Filters after Different Incubation Periods*

| System | 30 min | n ^{d)} | 60 min | n | 120 min | n |
|-----------------------------|-------------|-----------------|-------------|---|-------------|---|
| O86 + PMN | 0.03 ± 0.01 | 2 | 0.08 ± 0.02 | 4 | 0.39 ± 0.04 | 2 |
| O86 + PMN + colostrum (1:2) | 0.05 ± 0.01 | 2 | 0.15 ± 0.03 | 4 | 0.32 ± 0.07 | 2 |
| O86 + PMN + colostrum | 0.10 ± 0.01 | 2 | 0.19 ± 0.05 | 4 | 0.38 ± 0.04 | 2 |
| O86 | 0.02 | 1 | 0.06 | 1 | 0.08 | 1 |
| O86 + colostrum | 0.02 | 1 | 0.03 | 1 | 0.06 | 1 |

a) IgA = 9.0 g/l IgG = 12 g/l IgM = 1.0 g/l

b) Activity ± range (n = 2) or ± S.D. (n ≥ 3)

c) Bacteria metabolically labelled with (3,4,5)³H leucine

d) n = number of samples

Hydrophobic Interaction Chromatography (HIC)

Passing a suspension of *E. coli* O86 in 1 M ammonium sulphate through a column with Octyl Sepharose retarded the bacteria almost completely (Fig. 1-2). Only when the ammonium sulphate concentration was reduced to 0.1 M with a concomitant increase in the Triton X-100 concentration to 0.09% were the bacteria eluted from the column. After treatment with colostrum, the largest fraction of bacteria did not adhere to the column. Smaller fractions were eluted subsequently even with up to 0.1 M ammonium sulphate and 0.09% Triton X-100 thus indicating heterogeneity among the particles. Similar results indicating even more heterogeneity were achieved with the purified SIgA fraction (Fig. 2).

Phagocytosis

The phagocytosis by PMN cells of *E. coli* was not changed after treatment with colostrum (Table 4). Adhesion of *E. coli* to the filters in the absence of PMN was small and was scarcely affected by

colostrum. Neither was the effect of the SIgA fraction conspicuous on attachment and phagocytosis (Table 5) although SIgA appeared to increase the interaction after both 60 min and 120 min. However this observation could not be justified statistically. The phagocytosis was slow in all experiments, probably reflecting a limited liability of *E. coli* O86 to be phagocytosed by PMN cells. In fact, not until the bacteria had been incubated with the PMN for 120 min was the uptake apparent. The interaction during the second hour was partly blocked by cytochalasin B (Table 4) indicating blocking of phagocytic activity of the PMN cells (14).

Immunofluorescence

Bacteria which had been sensitized with defatted colostrum and then treated with FITC-conjugated antisera specific for IgA, IgG, IgM or C3 showed strong fluorescence only with the anti IgA serum. Very weak fluorescence was obtained with the other antisera.

TABLE 5 *Effect of SIgA on Phagocytosis (% of Added Activity per Filter^{b)}) of E. coli O86^{a)} by PMN Cells and Adhesion to Filters after Different Incubation periods*

| System | 30 min | n ^{d)} | 60 min | n | 120 min | n |
|----------------------------|-------------|-----------------|-------------|---|-------------|---|
| O86 + PMN | 0.14 ± 0.01 | 2 | 0.14 ± 0.05 | 4 | 0.32 ± 0.09 | 2 |
| O86 + PMN + 70 µg/ml SIgA | 0.13 ± 0.02 | 2 | 0.18 ± 0.06 | 4 | 0.47 ± 0.14 | 2 |
| O86 + PMN + 140 µg/ml SIgA | 0.11 ± 0.02 | 2 | 0.23 ± 0.06 | 4 | 0.52 ± 0.17 | 2 |
| O86 + PMN + 10 µg/ml Cyt B | 0.12 ± 0.01 | 2 | 0.20 ± 0.11 | 4 | 0.19 ± 0.01 | 2 |
| O86 | 0.05 | 1 | 0.05 ± 0.01 | 2 | 0.10 | 1 |
| O86 + 140 µg/ml SIgA | 0.03 | 1 | 0.03 ± 0.01 | 2 | 0.06 | 1 |

a) See Table 4

b) Bacteria metabolically labelled with (3,4,5)³H-leucine

d) n = number of samples

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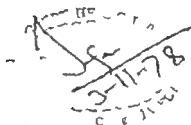
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MICROCALORIMETRIC MEASUREMENT OF NORMAL AND ADENOVIRUS INFECTED HeLa CELLS

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Thermochemistry Laboratory Chemical Center University of Lund, Box 740 S-220 07 Lund, Sweden, and Department of Virology Institute of Medical Microbiology University of Lund, S-223 62 Lund, Sweden

Ljungholm, K., Wadso, I. & Kjellen, L. Microcalorimetric measurements of normal and adenovirus infected HeLa cells. *Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B* 86: 121-124 1978.

The use of a simple microcalorimetric technique for the study of HeLa cells and adenoviruses infected HeLa cells has been investigated. The calorimetric curves obtained with these two cellular systems showed characteristic differences. It is concluded that the method can serve as a useful analytical technique for the monitoring of the overall metabolic activity of tissue cells attached to a solid support.

Key words: HeLa cells, adenovirus infected, microcalorimetric measurements, heat effect.

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Microcalorimetry has been used as an analytical technique in several studies on cellular systems including bacteria, yeasts and blood (Spink & Wadso 1976) and in a few cases on tissue cells (Kew 1975; Nikolic & Meskovic 1976; Nidergast, Casson & Lindberg 1977; Cerretti, Dorsey & Bohm 1977). The aim with the present investigation has been to explore the use of a simple microcalorimetric technique for studies of human cells in tissue cultures. This report presents results which show significant differences in activity of different preparations of HeLa cells. Since it is well known that infection of cells with viruses interferes with the cellular metabolic processes, the technique was also used to study differences in activity between virus infected and noninfected cells.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Calorimeter

A new microcalorimeter of the heat conduction type was used. The instrument and its operation have been described in detail elsewhere (Spink & Wadso 1976; Kew 1974). The samples were enclosed in stainless

steel capsules, volume 7.5 ml. In all cases the calorimeter was thermostatted at 37°C. The voltage signal was amplified with a Keithley 150 B Microvolt Amplifier (10 μ V range) and was recorded by means of a Servogor RE 511 recorder (100 mV range). The baseline stability for the instrument was 1.5 μ V/24 h.

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Cells: HeLa-S3 cells (Flow laboratories) were used in all experiments. The cells were grown in glass bottles or in suspension cultures.

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Media: The standard medium used in the calorimetric experiments was MEM (minimum essential medium), pH 7.4 supplemented with 10% calf serum. The starvation medium was MEM supplemented with 0.25% calf serum, 0.1 mM hypoxanthine and 0.1 mM orafloxacin (Parke 1974).

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MICROCALORIMETRIC MEASUREMENT OF NORMAL AND ADENOVIRUS INFECTED HeLa CELLS

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Media: The standard medium used in the calorimetric experiments was MEM (minimum essential medium), pH 7.4 supplemented with 10% calf serum. The starvation medium was MEM supplemented with 0.25% calf serum, 0.1 M hypoxanthine and 0.1 M ornithine (Peters 1974).

Calorimetric Experiments

The calorimetric ampoules were sterilized by autoclaving at 121°C for 0.5 h. The test ampoule was charged with 3 ml of a cell suspension, leaving an air phase of 4.5 ml. The reference ampoule was charged with the same amount of sterile medium.

The ampoules were pre-thermostated for 5 min at 37°C before being presented to the calorimeter. They were kept for 10 min in the thermostating positions after which they were inserted into the measurement zone.

In preliminary series of experiments the calorimetric ampoules were charged with HeLa cells suspended in standard medium at a concentration of 1.5×10^8 cells/L. The working procedure was carefully standardized but the heat effect curves obtained were still unpredictable. The following modification of the procedure, employing starvation treatment, was therefore adopted.

A calorimetric ampoule containing 3 ml of HeLa cells at a concentration of 1.5×10^8 cells/L, was incubated statically for 16–18 h at 37°C. During the incubation 90–95% of the cells adhered to the bottom of the ampoule, area 2.5 cm². The cells were washed once with MEM and 3 ml of starvation medium was added before the ampoule was presented to the calorimeter. After about 24 h, when stabilized heat effect curves had been obtained, the starvation medium was exchanged for standard medium or virus suspension.

Virus suspended in TRIS buffer pH 7.4 was added to the calorimetric ampoule at about 2000 PFU/cell. The virus particles were allowed to adsorb under static conditions for 1 h at room temperature. The buffer was then replaced with standard medium and the calorimetric measurement was continued.

In addition of the calorimetric measurements parallel experiments were performed with ampoules kept at 37°C outside the calorimeter. Cells from such ampoules were harvested by trypsin treatment following each step of the calorimetric experiment. The cells were counted and tested for survival by trypan blue exclusion.

pO₂ Measurements

In several experiments the oxygen content of the culture medium was estimated using a membrane covered Ag/Pb oxygen electrode (Borowski & Johnson 1967).

Calculation of Results

Heat effect values are expressed as mW/l or as pW/cell (pW = 10⁻³ W). Uncertainty values are standard deviations.

RESULTS

Preliminary experiments

The calorimetric curves, the «thermograms», obtained in the preliminary experiments are summarized in Fig. 1. The poor reproducibility may be due to heterogeneity in the cell materials, in particular differences in growth phases. As a means to overcome this problem we adopted a technique

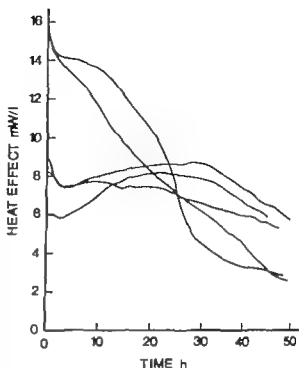


Fig. 1 Results of preliminary calorimetric experiments with HeLa cells grown in standard medium.

described by Pardee (1974), who employed starvation treatment of 3T3 cells in order to force them into the same growth phase.

HeLa cells in Starvation Medium

The thermograms obtained with starvation medium, and with all cells attached to the bottom of the ampoule are shown in Fig. 2. From about 24 h and onward the curves show the same pattern characterized by a linear decrease in the heat effects. The heat effect varied between the individual experiments, but the spread decreased by about one half

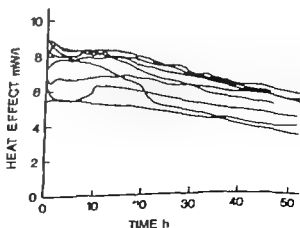


Fig. 2 Thermograms for HeLa cells in starvation medium.

TABLE 1 Percentage of Dead Cells at 0, 24 and 48 h in Starvation Medium

| Time h | Dead cells % | Number of experiments |
|-----------|-----------------|--------------------------|
| 0 | 7±2 | 19 |
| 24 | 10±3 | 19 |
| 48 | 14±4 | 3 |

The cells were treated with trypan blue at 0, 24 and 48 h and examined under a microscope. The mean number of cells leaky to trypan blue was determined

when corrected for the number of cells in the samples.

In Table 1 results of viable counts conducted in parallel with the calorimetric experiments are summarized. After 48 h in the calorimeter 14% of the cells were leaky to trypan blue. This decrease in viability is significantly less than the decrease in heat effect, about 30% recorded over the same period. No cell proliferation was observed.

It is not known if the cells were in the same growth phase at the end of the 24 h starvation period. Preliminary results, (Kjellin, unpublished) demonstrate that HeLa cells differ from 3T3 cells used by Pardee in rehabilitation after starvation. Nevertheless the starvation treatment was a successful means by which reproducible thermograms could be obtained and by which a starting point for further calorimetric studies of HeLa cells was achieved.

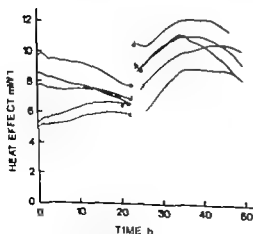


Fig. 3 Thermograms for HeLa cells in starvation medium (0-24 h) and standard medium (24-48 h).

Non-infected HeLa Cells

In one series of experiments HeLa cells were exposed to starvation medium for about 24 h and were then placed in standard medium. The thermograms are shown in Fig. 3. The heat effects observed immediately after the change to standard medium were poorly correlated with corresponding values at the end of the starvation period. The heat effects increased markedly after the change to the standard medium and a broad maximum was reached after 12-16 h.

The number of cells doubled during the 24 h exposure to the standard medium. About 5% of the cells were leaky to trypan blue staining at the end of the experiment (Table 2).

TABLE 2 Percentage of Dead Cells at 48 h. The Cells had been kept in Starvation Medium during 0-4 h

| Medium | Dead cells % | Number of experiments |
|------------------|-----------------|--------------------------|
| Standard | 5±1 | 6 |
| Standard + virus | 12±0 | 3 |

The cells had been kept in starvation medium during 0-24 h as described in Materials and Methods. At 48 h the cells were treated with trypan blue and the mean numbers of leaky cells were determined.

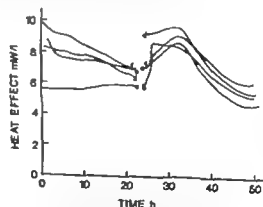


Fig. 4 Thermograms for HeLa cells in starvation medium (0-24 h) and standard medium containing adenovirus (24-48 h).

Virus Infected HeLa Cells

After starvation treatment for 24 h HeLa cells were infected with virus suspended in standard medium. The thermograms are presented in Fig. 4. As with non-infected HeLa cells the heat effect increased markedly after the change to complete

medium (see Fig. 3). However a maximum was reached earlier about 8 h after the change of medium and the following decline was more rapid than in the experiments with non-infected cells. About 20 h after the maximum was reached the thermograms levelled out at values similar to those found at the end of the starvation period.

The infected cells did not show significant growth 12% of the cells were dead (Table 2) at the end of the test period.

As with non-infected cells there was a poor correlation between heat effects observed immediately before and after the change of medium.

Tests for Oxygen in the Culture Medium

In a few experiments the oxygen potential in the culture medium was measured. After growth for 6 h in standard medium in a calorimetric ampoule the oxygen potential was close to 100% of the air saturation value. After 25 h the electrode measurements indicated that about 60% of the oxygen was consumed.

In some experiments with cells in standard medium the calorimetric observations were interrupted several times during the period 5–25 h and the liquid phase was aerated by inverting the ampoule several times. In other experiments the ampoules were opened and carbogen was briefly bubbled through the medium. When the calorimetric measurements were resumed no significant change in the heat effects were observed. The results thus indicate that the calorimetric experiments were performed under aerobic conditions.

DISCUSSION

We conclude that the heat production from about 5×10^5 HeLa cells attached to a solid support is within the sensitivity of the present microcalorimetric technique. The average heat effect value was found to be in the range of 20–40 pW/cell depending upon the state of the cell.

The results obtained in the preliminary series of experiments are significant as they show that the metabolic activity in HeLa cell preparations can vary to a very large extent even if the experimental conditions are carefully controlled.

Experiments with non-infected and infected cells, respectively showed significantly different thermograms. In the former case a broad maximum was observed 12–16 h after the change of medium, whereas relatively sharp maxima were found already after about 8 h when virus was present. It is known that viral DNA replication is still at an early phase at that time (Kjellén 1962) and that the production of viral capsomers has hardly started.

Maturation of virions takes place from 16 to 30 h after infection. We can thus conclude that there is a large impact on the cell metabolism far ahead of the maximum production of viral constituents.

It was shown that the present calorimetric experiments were performed under aerobic conditions. However in order to secure aerobic conditions during very long calorimetric experiments it may be advantageous to use a 'perfusion' technique (Wadsö 1974, Spink & Wadsö 1976, Kemp 1975) where the cells can be continuously supplied with new medium.

The method presented is believed to be useful for monitoring of the overall metabolic activity of tissue cells e.g. in the detection of heterogeneity between cell samples, in studies of the effect in different media and as a timer for events in the cell cycle. However it is evident that much methodological work remains to be done on the correlation between the processes and the thermograms.

This work has been supported by the Swedish Board for Technical Development. The assistance of Dr T. Sakhrana and Miss M. Öberg is gratefully acknowledged.

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COMPARISON OF SMALL HEPATITIS B SURFACE ANTIGEN PARTICLES AND HUMAN SERUM LOW DENSITY LIPOPROTEIN MOLECULES BY ELECTRON MICROSCOPY

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Solaas, Marit H. Comparison of small hepatitis B surface antigen particles and human serum low density lipoprotein molecules by electron microscopy. *Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B*, 86 125-129 1978

The small spherical particles associated with hepatitis B surface antigen (HB_sAg) could be distinguished from the low density lipoprotein (LDL) molecules in human serum by examination of coded, negatively stained preparations. The HB_sAg associated particles showed a more marked contrast against the background than LDL. Addition of specific antiserum to LDL caused a significantly reduced mean diameter of LDL molecules. An insignificant reduction in size of HB_sAg particles was found by corresponding treatment. It is suggested that the antibody molecules protect LDL molecules against artificial flattening during preparation.

Key words: Hepatitis B surface antigen, low density lipoprotein, electron microscopy, negative staining.
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Three morphologically distinct particles have been found to be associated with the hepatitis B surface antigen (HB_sAg) (3,5): Small 20 nm spherical particles, larger 42 nm spherical (Dane) particles and various tubular structures.

In previous studies (14, 15), we based identification of HB_sAg, after direct examination of diluted serum samples, on the presence of tubular and Dane particles. As the smaller HB_sAg associated particles closely resembled LDL of human serum (15), observation of free 20 nm spherical particles was not considered definite proof of the presence of HB_sAg. However, during these studies, a difference with respect to negative staining properties of LDL molecules and small HB_sAg associated particles was suspected.

The present paper describes experiments conducted to elucidate this possibility and to evaluate the cause of these different appearances.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Human sera. Sera negative for HB_sAg (judged by double diffusion tests) were obtained from healthy individuals and used within a few days.

HB_sAg containing serum. Serum from an apparently healthy carrier of HB_sAg was used. This serum sample, which was known to contain few tubular and Dane particles, had been stored at -40°C.

Antisera. Specific antiserum against HB_sAg (anti-HB_s) was obtained from a patient given multiple transfusions. The serum sample had been stored at -40°C. Rabbit antiserum to human β -lipoprotein (LDL) obtained from Behringwerke A.G. (Dp. /Batch No 1955 and K/Batch No 2076) was also used. A human serum sample without any antibodies served as negative control. This serum sample had been stored under the same conditions as the anti-HB_s serum.

Preparation of lipoprotein-free serum fractions. Lipoprotein-free serum fractions were prepared by ultracentrifugation, as described below.

Double diffusion experiments. These tests were carried

medium (see Fig 3). However a maximum was reached earlier about 8 h after the change of medium and the following decline was more rapid than in the experiments with non infected cells. About 20 h after the maximum was reached the thermograms levelled out at values similar to those found at the end of the starvation period.

The infected cells did not show significant growth 12% of the cells were dead (Table 2) at the end of the test period.

As with non infected cells there was a poor correlation between heat effects observed immediately before and after the change of medium.

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Preparation of lipoprotein-free serum fractions. Lipoprotein-free serum fractions were prepared by ultracentrifugation, as described below.

Double diffusion experiments. These tests were carried

out as described previously (16). Tests for the presence of HB_sAg were performed in 1 per cent agarose gels (Agarose, L'Industrie Biologique Française S.A., Lot 7547), while the tests for the presence of LDL were carried out in 1 per cent Oxoid Monagarw No 2 (Oxoid Ltd., Batch No 239 1053).

Preparative ultracentrifugation Preparative ultracentrifugation was carried out according to the method described for lipoproteins by Havel *et al* (8) in a Beckman L50 preparative ultracentrifuge at 4°C. To obtain lipoprotein-free serum fractions lipoproteins floating at the density 1.21 g/cm³ were separated from the heavier serum proteins by ultracentrifugation at 105 000 g for 40 hours. Lipoproteins with densities between 1.050 and 1.080 g/cm³ were prepared by initial centrifugation at 176 000 g for 24 hours at a solute density of 1.050 g/cm³. The density of the infranant solution was raised to 1.080 g/cm³ and centrifugation was performed at 176 000 g for 48 hours.

Preparation of pure high-density LDL fractions Lipoproteins with densities between 1.050 and 1.080 g/cm³ were applied on a retrograde Bio-Gel® A 5m, 200–400 mesh (Bio-Rad Laboratories) column to obtain a pure homogeneous preparation of LDL molecules with a density as similar as possible to that of HB_sAg. The diameter and height of the column were 2.5 and 95 cm, respectively and elution was performed using a 0.1 M Tris buffer at pH 8.2 containing 0.15 M NaCl and 0.001 M EDTA. The fractions shown by double diffusion tests to contain pure LDL were pooled, concentrated and dialysed.

Dialysis The fractions obtained from these ultracentrifugation and column chromatography experiments were dialysed against several changes of 0.85 per cent NaCl at 4°C prior to electron microscopy.

Preparation of samples for electron microscopy Serum samples and lipoprotein-free serum fractions from healthy individuals and from the HB_sAg carrier were diluted 1:4 in 0.85 per cent NaCl while lipoprotein free antiserum fractions (including the control serum) were diluted 1:9 prior to electron microscopy. Lipoprotein-free antiserum was added to both the sera and the fractions to be examined. The ratio of the test sample to the antiserum was varied until optimal aggregation was achieved. The mixtures were incubated at 37°C tilted every tenth minute for one hour and finally incubated overnight at 4°C. Samples containing lipoproteins were stored at 4°C and examined in the electron microscope within a few days. Other samples were kept at -20°C until examination.

Coding of samples was performed by a person who was not participating in the study and the code was broken only after the samples had been finally scored.

Electron microscopy The samples were negatively stained by use of a 3 per cent sodium phosphotungstate solution at pH 7.4 as described previously (14). A Siemens 1A electron microscope (accelerating voltage 80 kV, objective aperture 50 µm) or a JEM 100C (Jeol) electron microscope (used as transmission electron microscope, accelerating voltage 80 kV, objective aperture 60 µm) was used at instrumental magnifications of 120 000 × and 130 000 × respectively.

As the number of tubular and Dane particles was very small in the serum containing HB_sAg, decisions as to whether or not HB_sAg was present could be made before any such structures were observed.

Measurement of particle diameter and statistical analysis Photographically enlarged (×3) electron micrographs were used. The particle diameters were determined to the nearest tenth of a millimeter by use of a caliper.

As the distribution of particle diameters appeared to be normal (see below), Student's *t* test was used to compare differences between mean diameters.

EXPERIMENTS AND RESULTS

Attempts to Distinguish Small HB_sAg Associated Particles from LDL Molecules in the Electron Microscope

During previous studies (14, 15), a possible difference with respect to negative staining properties of LDL molecules and small HB_sAg associated



Fig 1 Electron micrograph showing a higher degree of contrast surrounding a HB_sAg associated particle (A) than that of a lipoprotein molecule (B). Negative staining. Magnification × 360 000.

particles was noticed. HB₂Ag associated particles appeared to contrast more strongly with the background than LDL molecules (Fig. 1). An experiment was therefore performed to ascertain whether this observation could be used to distinguish the two types of particles.

Three aliquots of diluted whole serum and three aliquots of the diluted lipoprotein-free fraction from each of five individuals were given to a person who coded 20 of the 30 samples. At least one aliquot of each sample from each person was coded, otherwise the author did not know the number of samples from any individual included among the 20 specimens. The antiserum fractions were coded separately. The antisera were added to the 20 test samples in separate experiments. Altogether 80 different samples were examined by electron microscopy.

The content of the samples, as determined by electron microscopy prior to the addition of antisera, is shown in Table 1. HB₂Ag was observed in all samples obtained from the healthy carrier of this antigen. In addition, structures resembling this antigen were also found in one sample obtained from another individual. This was the only whole serum aliquot included from this person. A few free structures thought to be HB₂Ag associated particles were, however, also seen in this sample after addition of anti-LDL serum or control serum. HB₂Ag was not observed in the two lipoprotein-free serum fractions from this individual. Lipoprotein particles were recorded in all samples (Table 1), also in the lipoprotein-free fractions, although the content of lipoprotein molecules in the latter specimens was small.

The aggregation of LDL molecules was observed

in all samples after addition of anti-LDL serum. Likewise, HB₂Ag associated particles were aggregated after addition of anti-HB₂ serum in all samples from the HB₂Ag carrier. Anti-HB₂ serum also aggregated particles in the serum aliquot obtained from the individual mentioned above. Neither LDL molecules nor HB₂Ag associated particles were aggregated in samples where control serum was substituted for antiserum.

Size Determination of High-Density LDL Molecules and HB₂Ag Associated Particles with and with Antibody Attached

The LDL obtained after column chromatography was submitted to electron microscopy. The diameter of 200 LDL particles from each of four samples was determined before and after the addition of specific antiserum.

The diameters of both free and aggregated LDL molecules appeared to be approximately normally distributed (Fig. 2). Corresponding distribution patterns were obtained for the four individual samples. The mean diameter of free LDL molecules was $214 \text{ nm} \pm 22 \text{ nm}$ (mean \pm S.D.), while aggregated molecules had a mean diameter of $199 \text{ nm} \pm 20 \text{ nm}$. The reduction in particle size observed after addition of specific antiserum (7.0 per cent) was significant ($t = 14.618$, $p < 0.0005$). Similar significant reductions in molecule diameters were observed in all individual LDL samples.

Small HB₂Ag associated particles were examined in the same way. Altogether 83 free, presumably HB₂Ag associated particles were measured; the distribution of the particles according to their diameters is shown in Fig. 3. A mean diameter of $212 \text{ nm} \pm 19 \text{ nm}$ was found. The mean diameter

TABLE 1 Scoring by Electron Microscopy Following Negative Scoring of Coded Whole Serum and Lipoprotein-Free Serum Samples (Density $> 1.1 \text{ g/cm}^3$) with Respect to Presence of Small HB₂Ag Associated Particles and LDL Molecules, Respectively

| Samples scored by electron microscopy as containing | Number of samples from | | | |
|---|------------------------|------------------------|----------------------------|------------------------|
| | normal individuals | | HB ₂ Ag carrier | |
| | Whole serum | Lipoprotein-free serum | Whole serum | Lipoprotein-free serum |
| HB ₂ Ag | 1 (0) ^a | 0 (0) | 1 (1) | 2 (2) |
| LDL | 9 (9) | 8 (8) | 1 (1) | 10 (0) |
| Number of samples examined | 9 | 8 | 1 | 2 |

^a Expected values are shown in brackets.

^b Only a small amount of LDL was present in these samples.

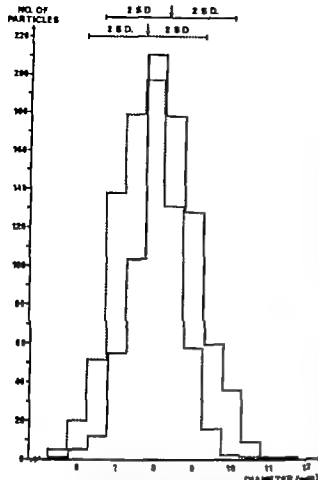


Fig 2 Distributions according to diameter of native LDL molecules (full line) and LDL molecules aggregated after addition of specific antiserum (dotted line). The measurements were made on electron micrographs (magnification $\times 390\,000$). Mean diameters (arrows) $\pm 2\text{ S.D.}$ ($21.4\text{ nm} \pm 4.4\text{ nm}$ and $19.9\text{ nm} \pm 4.0\text{ nm}$) are indicated.

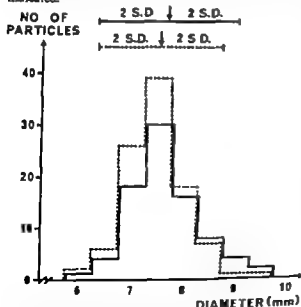


Fig 3 Distributions of free (full line) and antibody aggregated (dotted line) small spherical HB_sAg associated particles by diameter (magnification $\times 360\,000$). Mean diameters (arrows) $\pm 2\text{ S.D.}$ ($21.2\text{ nm} \pm 3.8\text{ nm}$ and $20.8\text{ nm} \pm 3.2\text{ nm}$) are indicated.

of 100 aggregated HB_sAg associated particles was $20.8\text{ nm} \pm 1.6\text{ nm}$ (Fig. 3). The reduction in diameter observed after addition of antiserum (1.9 per cent) was not significant ($t = 1.785\text{ d.f.}$ $181.005 < p < 0.10$).

DISCUSSION

Electron microscopy reveals a close resemblance between small HB_sAg associated particles and human serum LDL molecules. Both structures are spherical and have an appearance suggesting a substructure (2, 3, 8, 11). The size of the particles is also similar. Diameters of between 20 and 22 nm have been found for the HB_sAg associated particles (2, 3, 4, 10, 12 and others), while diameters of human serum LDL reported in the literature range from 19.3 to 21.6 nm (6, 11, 17). The dimensions of free HB_sAg associated particles and of free LDL molecules reported here (21.2 nm and 21.4 nm, respectively) agree well with these values.

In spite of these resemblances, it was possible to distinguish the two particles, since they showed different degrees of contrast against the background. The four samples (out of 80) which were wrongly classified by electron microscopy of coded samples were all diluted whole serum aliquots obtained from one individual. HB_sAg could not be demonstrated in this serum sample by either double diffusion or radioimmunoassay (the latter test kindly performed by Dr Peter Skinhøj, Copenhagen). Nor could HB_sAg associated particles be found in the lipoprotein free fraction of this serum. Structures closely resembling tubular and Dane particles associated with HB_sAg have been observed in sera which are immunologically negative for HB_sAg (9, 14, 15).

A flattening of LDL molecules on the supporting film may explain the different negative staining properties of the two particles. The amount of stain adhering to a given structure depends – at least partially – on the height of the structure. Thus, the reduced particle height of LDL, due to a proposed flattening, may be responsible for the low contrast surrounding these molecules. The artificial increase in viral diameter caused by flattening during preparation for electron microscopy has been observed (1, 13). The possibility of a corresponding flattening of LDL molecules has been mentioned by Forte *et al.* (6). The polygonal appearance of these molecules in areas in which lipoprotein particles are in contact (7, 17) also suggests a flexible structure of LDL molecules.

The addition of specific antiserum to preparations of LDL molecules and HB_sAg associated particles caused a significant decrease in the mean diameter of only the former particles. The antibody molecules

may contribute to the retaining of the structure of LDL particles. The fact that the reduction in mean diameter was statistically significant only for the LDL molecules supports the assumption of a more flexible structure of these molecules than of the small HB_sAg associated particles.

Thus, structures which closely resemble each other may be distinguished by careful inspection of negatively stained preparations. The distinction between HB_sAg associated 20 nm particles and LDL molecules was based on the sharper contrast against the background of the HB_sAg particles than that of the native LDL molecules. Furthermore, particle diameters based on measurement of negatively stained preparations may be larger than the native value if flattening of the particles occurs.

My thanks are due to Dr Peter Skjelding, Department of Chemical Chemistry, Bispebjerg Hospital, Copenhagen, for performing the radioimmunoassay test of one sample. The electron microscope belongs to the Electron Microscopical Unit for Biological Sciences, University of Oslo, Oslo (Head Dr. Trond Arntsen).

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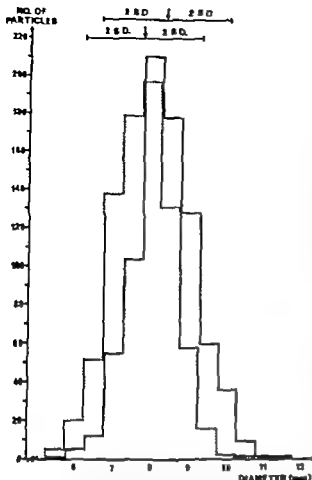


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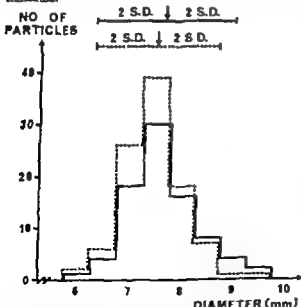


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A flattening of LDL molecules on the supporting film may explain the different negative staining properties of the two particles. The amount of stain adhering to a given structure depends - at least partially - on the height of the structure. Thus, the reduced particle height of LDL, due to a proposed flattening, may be responsible for the low contrast surrounding these molecules. The artificial increase in viral diameter caused by flattening during preparation for electron microscopy has been observed (1, 13). The possibility of a corresponding flattening of LDL molecules has been mentioned by Forte *et al.* (6). The polygonal appearance of these molecules in areas in which lipoprotein particles are in contact (7, 17) also suggests a flexible structure of LDL molecules.

The addition of specific antiserum to preparations of LDL molecules and HBsAg associated particles caused a significant decrease in the mean diameter of only the former particles. The antibody molecules

may contribute to the retaining of the structure of LDL particles. The fact that the reduction in mean diameter was statistically significant only for the LDL molecules supports the assumption of a more flexible structure of these molecules than of the small HBsAg associated particles.

Thus, structures which closely resemble each other may be distinguished by careful inspection of negatively stained preparations. The distinction between HBsAg associated 20 nm particles and LDL molecules was based on the sharper contrast against the background of the HBsAg particles than that of the native LDL molecules. Furthermore, particle diameters based on measurement of negatively stained preparations may be larger than the native value if flattening of the particles occurs.

My thanks are due to Dr Peter Skjelslev, Department of Clinical Chemistry, Bispebjerg Hospital, Copenhagen, for performing the radioimmunoassay test of one sample. The electron microscopes belong to the Electron Microscopy Unit for Biological Sciences, University of Oslo, Oslo (Head: Dr Trygve Andersen).

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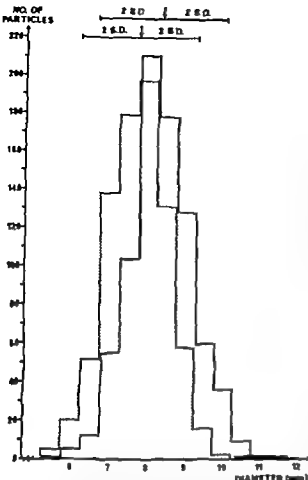


Fig 2 Distributions according to diameter of native LDL molecules (full line) and LDL molecules aggregated after addition of specific antiserum (dotted line). The measurements were made on electron micrographs (magnification $\times 390\,000$). Mean diameters (arrows) ± 2 S. D. (2) $4\text{ nm} \pm 4.4\text{ nm}$ and $19.9\text{ nm} \pm 4.0\text{ nm}$ are indicated.

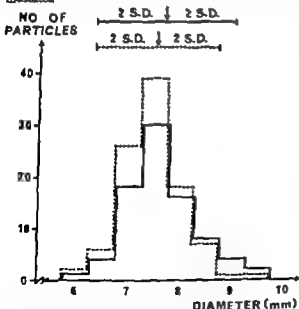


Fig 3 Distributions of free (full line) and antibody aggregated (dotted line) small spherical HBsAg associated particles by diameter (magnification $\times 360\,000$). Mean diameters (arrows) ± 2 S. D. (7) $2\text{ nm} \pm 3.8\text{ nm}$ and $20.8\text{ nm} \pm 3.2\text{ nm}$ are indicated.

of 100 aggregated HBsAg associated particles was $20.8\text{ nm} \pm 1.6\text{ nm}$ (Fig. 3). The reduction in diameter observed after addition of antiserum (1.9 per cent) was not significant ($t = 1.785$ d.f. = 18) $0.05 < p < 0.10$.

DISCUSSION

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IMMUNOCHEMICAL STUDIES ON *STAPHYLOCOCCUS AUREUS* PLASMA MEMBRANE

I Isolation and Chemical Characterization

PER AASJØRD and ARNE GROV

The Gade Institute, Department of Microbiology University of Bergen, Bergen, Norway

Aasjød, P. & Grov, A. Immunochemical studies on *Staphylococcus aureus* plasma membrane. I. Isolation and chemical characterization. Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B, 86 131-137 1978.

Cytoplasmic membrane and lipoteichoic acid (LTA) were isolated from *S. aureus* Cowan I and analysed chemically. Pure membrane was obtained by using immune IgG coupled to Sepharose, which then absorbed all cell wall fragments due to the interaction between IgG and protein A on the wall. LTA, shown to be a glyceryl-glycerol backbone acid containing ester-linked alanine and pentadecanoic acid as the major fatty acid, was also present in the isolated membrane but only as a minor component. Other carbohydrate, protein and lipid components which were present as a chemical complex, demonstrated the membrane preparations.

Key words: *Staphylococcus* cytoplasmic membrane, isolation, chemistry.

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The literature concerning the immunochemistry of the cytoplasmic membrane of *Staphylococcus aureus* seems very sparse. Except for the membrane-bound lipoteichoic acid (LTA) (5, 11, 25, 26), studies of antigenicity and possible determinants of other constituents have not been published. Since the cell wall and cytoplasmic membrane are closely connected - and an absolute separation may be difficult to obtain - the importance of a better understanding of the immunochemistry of the membrane is obvious. This has particular actuality after the finding that certain membrane structures, e.g. LTA (28), may penetrate the cell wall. This naturally raises the question: are LTA or other membrane structures of importance to the antigenicity of the cell?

In the present paper the isolation and the chemical characterization of cytoplasmic membrane and LTA is described. LTA is isolated to serve as a marker for known structures and for antigenic determinants. The serological studies will be reported in a subsequent paper.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Strain

Staphylococcus aureus strain Cowan I (NCTC 8530) was used for the preparation of both plasma membrane and lipoteichoic acid (LTA).

Growth Media

Nutrient broth contained 15 g proteose peptone (Oxoid, England), 25 g liver digest (Oxoid), 5 g yeast extract (Oxoid), and 5 g NaCl per 1000 ml. Before autoclaving, the pH of the medium was first adjusted to 9.0 with NaOH and then readjusted to pH 7.4-7.6 with HCl, and any precipitates removed by filtration.

Blood agar contained 7.5 per cent blood, 1.2 per cent agar (Oxoid), and nutrient broth.

Protoplast medium contained 1.6 M sucrose, 0.25 per cent $MgSO_4$ and 1000 IU of benzylpenicillin (Apothekenes Laboratorium, Norway) as nutrient broth. Penicillin was added just before use.

Buffers

Phosphate buffer: 0.01 M KH_2PO_4 - Na_2HPO_4 , pH 6.5, 0.25 per cent $MgSO_4$, 0.0 per cent azide.

Phosphate buffered saline (PBS): 1/15 M KH_2PO_4 - Na_2HPO_4 , pH 7.2, 0.85 per cent NaCl.

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Immunoabsorbent

Human IgG (AB KABI Sweden) was coupled to cyanogenbromide-activated Sepharose 4B (Pharmacia, Sweden) as described in (20).

Isolation of Cytoplasmic Membrane

The blood agar culture (18 h at 37 °C) of *S. aureus* strain Cowan I was added to the nutrient broth (50 ml) and incubated at 37 °C during continuous shaking (160 rot./min) for 5 h then transferred to 400 ml of medium and the same incubation continued for 3 h. The bacteria in 130 ml of this culture were harvested by centrifugation (10 min at 8 000 rev/min) suspended in 3 ml of nutrient broth transferred to 400 ml of the penicillin medium, and incubated at 37 °C for 36 h during continuous shaking (120 rot./min). The protoplasts were then harvested by centrifugation for 1 h at 20 000 $\times g$. The protoplasts, floated to the top, were lysed by transfer to 100 ml of phosphate buffer DNase (1 mg, Sigma DN 100) and RNase (1 mg, Sigma III A) was added to the suspension of lysed protoplasts and the mixture was incubated for 30 min at room temperature. After centrifugation (35 000 $\times g$ for 5 min) the pellet formed was resuspended in phosphate buffer to an optical density (OD) of 1.5 at 280 nm and then centrifuged in a discontinuous sucrose gradient (35 to 50 per cent sucrose in phosphate buffer from top to bottom, 5 per cent increase per 5 ml). The protoplast suspension (25 ml) was layered on the top of each tube (100 ml), and the centrifugation was carried out in a swing-out rotor at 1500 $\times g$ for 90 min. The upper part of the gradient containing the cytoplasmic membrane was taken off and centrifuged for 20 min at 35 000 $\times g$; the pellet was resuspended to OD 1.5 (280 nm) with phosphate buffer and recentrifuged (30 min) on sucrose gradient as before. The top layers with membrane fragments were pooled and centrifuged for 20 min at 35 000 $\times g$; the pellet then resuspended (extracted) in phosphate buffer and centrifuged for 10 min at 2 000 $\times g$. This latter extraction procedure was repeated 3 to 4 times with the precipitate until the supernatant was no longer turbid. The membrane material was then collected by centrifugation of the pooled supernatants for 10 min at 20 000 $\times g$. All the above centrifugations were carried out at 4 °C. The plasma membrane material thus obtained was suspended in PBS mixed with Sepharose IgG and incubated with occasional stirring for 1 h at 37 °C. During this process, IgG is known to fix protein A (8) and thus bind cell wall fragments. After sedimentation of the Sepharose particles, the supernatant was taken off and the Sepharose washed once by gentle resuspension in PBS. The supernatant and the washing medium were centrifuged for 10 min at 20 000 $\times g$; the precipitate was then washed 3 times by suspension in distilled water followed by 10 min centrifugation at 20 000 $\times g$ and finally freeze-dried.

Isolation of LTA

The procedure used was essentially that of Maslow *et al.* (15) and Ofek *et al.* (17). *S. aureus* strain Cowan I (18 h blood agar culture) was incubated 8 h in 100 ml nutrient broth and then transferred to 1000 ml nutrient broth in

2000 ml flasks. All incubations were at 37 °C and with continuous shaking at 160 rot./min. The bacteria were harvested after 18 h, washed 3 times in distilled water, resuspended in 0.2 N HCl (10 ml per g of wet bacteria) and kept in a boiling water bath for 10 min. After centrifugation and washing (6 times in cold distilled water), the bacteria were resuspended in distilled water (7 ml per g of bacteria), mixed with an equal volume of 95 per cent phenol incubated with vibration (Vibro Mischer Type 1 Bopp & Reuther BRD) for 30 min at 4 °C and centrifuged (30 min at 1000 $\times g$). The water phase was thoroughly dialysed and freeze-dried. The LTA material was further subjected to isoelectric focusing (17) using an ampholine-solution with a pH interval of 3 to 6 (LKB Produkter, Sweden), and an LKB apparatus with a 110 ml column. Finally the LTA preparation was dialysed and freeze-dried.

Analytical Methods

Electron microscopic studies of protoplasts and plasma membranes were carried out essentially according to the procedure of Kelenberger *et al.* (10), using 3 per cent glutaraldehyde in 0.2 M cacodylate buffer pH 7.4 (22), as fixative and the Spurr medium (23) for embedding. In the case of protoplasts, sucrose was added to the glutaraldehyde-cacodylate buffer to 1.6 M concentration. Embedded preparations were cut into thin sections (400 to 500 Å) on an ultramicrotome (LKB Produkter, Sweden) and the thin sections were transferred to grids (100 mesh). The grids were treated with 2 per cent aqueous uranylacetate for 20 min, thoroughly rinsed in water and then treated with Reynolds lead citrate for 15 min and washed in water.

Electron microscopic studies were carried out in a Hitachi HU 12A electron microscope at 60 KV.

Hydrolysis. Samples (1 to 2 mg) were hydrolysed in 0.5 ml volumes as follows:

- 0.1 N HCl for 7 h at 100 °C,
- 3 N HCl for 3 h at 100 °C,
- 6 N HCl for 18 h at 105 °C and
- 1 N NH₃ for 5 min at 100 °C (examination for ester-linked amino acids). The hydrolyses were carried out in sealed tubes flushed with nitrogen.

Chromatography. Circular paper chromatography was carried out on Whatman No. 1 paper with the following solvent systems:

- Isopropanol : 2 N HCl (65 : 35 v/v) (17)
- Propanol NH₃·H₂O (6 : 3 : 1 v/v) (11)
- Butanol HAc H₂O (4 : 1 : 1 v/v) (19)
- Ethylacetate pyridine H₂O (40 : 11 : 6 v/v) (7)

The detecting reagents used were ninhydrin (13), the Elson Morgan reagent (18), alkaline silver nitrate (13) and sodium periodate-benzidine (3).

Gas-liquid chromatography (GLC) was carried out on a Perkin Elmer 900 gas chromatograph. Amino acids were analysed as trifluoroacetylated butyl esters (7) on columns (0.2 \times 200 cm) of Chromosorb WAW HT 80 to 100 mesh covered with 0.325 per cent EGA (ethylene glycol succinate) from Regis, USA. The flow rate of the carrier gas (N₂) was 30 ml/min and the temperature was raised 4 °C/min from 100 to 210 °C followed by 8

was at 210° C. The standard amino acid solution, AA 5 was purchased from Calbiochem, USA.

Carbohydrates were analysed as trimethylsilyltrimethylsilylacetate derivatives, prepared as described by Clewett *et al.* (4) using Siliow-BTZ (Supelco, USA), and fatty acids as methyl derivatives, extracted from methanolysed samples by hexane. Both carbohydrates and fatty acid derivatives were separated on columns of Chromosorb W (10 to 100 mesh), coated with 3 per cent SE 30 (Serva, BRD). Separation of methylated fatty acids, including standards, Mix D and Mix F (Supelco), was obtained by a temperature rise of 4° C/min from 150 to 250° C, and the derivatives of sugars and sugar alcohols were chromatographed by raising the temperature 4° C/min from 100 to 200° C. The flow rate of the carrier gas (N₂) was 30 ml/min. Glycerol was also chromatographed isothermally at 120° C. Standard sugars and sugar alcohols were obtained from British Drug Houses Ltd.

Phosphorus was determined as described in (29).

Serological Tests

Double diffusion in agar was performed as described in (9) using antiserum to *S. aureus* strain Cowan 1 produced by the intravenous injection of formalin-killed bacteria in rabbits (16), and by using purified cell wall antigens as references.

RESULTS

Variable amounts of inoculum in the penicillin medium resulted in a variable yield of protoplasts, the optimal ratio penicillin medium/inoculum was approximately 400/130. The protoplasts gradually increased in size and finally lysed. After 36 h about 40 per cent of the cells in the culture were protoplasts (Fig. 1). Maximal yield (15 to 20 mg freeze-dried cytoplasmic membrane per 1000 ml of medium) was obtained at a penicillin concentration of 1000 IU/ml. Higher concentrations were bactericidal.

The plasma membrane, isolated by sucrose gradient centrifugation in two steps followed by extraction of a sediment, still contained some cell wall fragments detected by double diffusion in agar. These fragments were effectively removed by absorption with Sepharose-IgG. The capacity was by scanning electron microscopy estimated to be 100 to 200 *S. aureus* cells/Sepharose particle (Fig. 3). The final plasma membrane preparation seemed relatively pure according to electron microscopy (Fig. 2), and neither of the cell wall components, / e

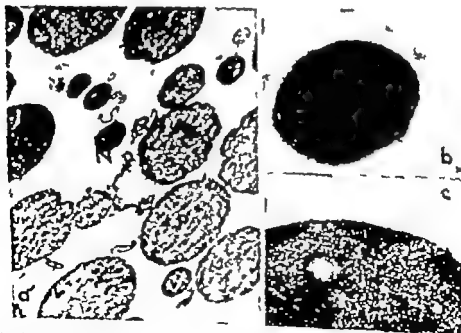


Fig. 1. a. Electron micrograph of the α -lipid layer after flotation showing protoplasts (P) and normal *S. aureus* cells (N). 8,000x.
b. Higher magnification of a section of Fig. 1a showing a normal *S. aureus* cell. 30,000x.
c. Higher magnification of a section of Fig. 1a showing a part of a protoplast of *S. aureus* (cf. Fig. 1b). 30,000x.

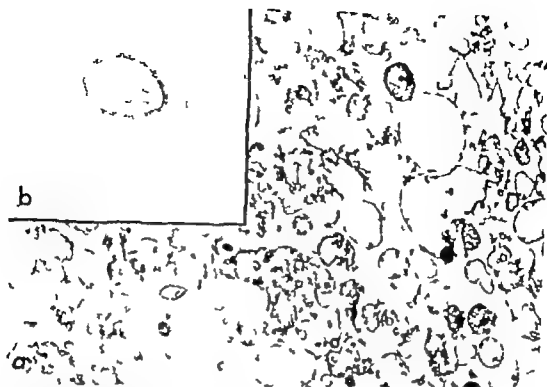


Fig 2 a. Electron micrograph of lysed protoplasts of *S. aureus* 8 000 \times

b Higher magnification of a section through a vesicle from a lysed protoplast specimen. Note the unit membrane nature of the limiting membrane. 86 000 \times

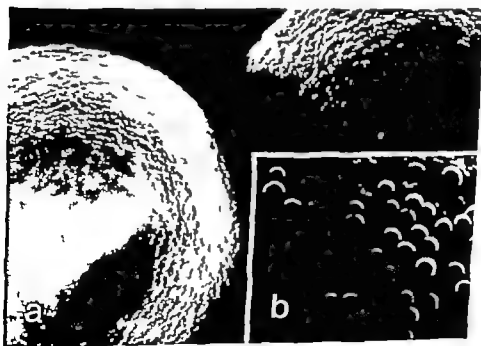


Fig 3 Scanning electron micrographs of *S. aureus* Cowan I cells adsorbed onto the surface of a Sepharose gel which was coupled human IgG a 2 500 \times b 10 000 \times

teichoic acid and protein A, could be demonstrated serologically. Nor could ribitol from cell wall teichoic acid be demonstrated chromatographically.

The yield of LTA was 4 to 6 mg LTA per 10 g of bacteria (wet weight). On iso-electric focusing, the LTA behaved heterogeneously with serologically active material being observed over a wide pH range.

Chemical Analyses

Paper chromatography of hydrolysates (a) in solvent system A showed no nucleic acid derivatives upon inspection under a UV-lamp. Examination of hydrolysates (b) in system B, C and D revealed the presence of glycerol, glucose, galactose, mannose, and glucosamine in the cytoplasmic membrane and glycerol and glucose in LTA. These findings were verified and the substances quantitated by gas chromatography (Table 1). Concerning glycerol determination, prehydrolysis with 3N HCl for 3 h at 100° C before esterification gave higher values.

The result of gas chromatographic examination of fatty acids present in the membrane and LTA

TABLE 3 GLC Analysis of Amino Acids in Cytoplasmic Membrane and LTA of *S. aureus* Cowan I

| Amino acids | Membrane pmol/mg | LTA pmol/mg |
|-------------|---------------------|----------------|
| Ala | 0.106 | 0.158 |
| Val | 0.068 | 0.040 |
| Gly | 0.066 | 0.033 |
| Ileu | 0.073 | 0.037 |
| Leu | 0.143 | 0.063 |
| Pro | 0.054 | 0.016 |
| Thr | 0.067 | 0.029 |
| Ser | 0.049 | 0.057 |
| Phe | 0.120 | 0.040 |
| Asp | 0.238 | 0.102 |
| Glu | 0.292 | 0.128 |
| Tyr | 0.055 | 0— |
| Orn | 0.031 | 0— |
| Lys | 0.194 | 0.113 |
| Trp | 0.100 | 0— |

— The figures are the mean of three individual samples (hydrolyses).

TABLE 1 GLC Analysis of Sugars and Sugar Alcohols in Cytoplasmic Membrane and LTA of *S. aureus* Cowan I

| | Membrane pmol/mg | LTA pmol/mg |
|-------------|---------------------|----------------|
| Glucose | 0.87 | 0.167 |
| Galactose | 0.55 | — |
| Mannose | 0.30 | — |
| Glucosamine | 0.44 | — |
| Glycerol | 0.543 | 0.760 |

TABLE 2 GLC Analysis of Fatty Acids in Cytoplasmic Membrane and LTA of *S. aureus* Cowan I

| Fatty acids | Membrane pmol/mg | LTA pmol/mg |
|------------------------------|---------------------|----------------|
| C 14 (H) | 0.011 | — |
| C 15 (Pentadecanoic acid) | 0.257 | 0.256 |
| C 16 (H) | 0.008 | — |
| C 16 (1) (Hexadecanoic acid) | 0.014 | 0.013 |
| C 17 (H) | 0.059 | 0.037 |
| C 18 (Octadecanoic acid) | 0.064 | 0.021 |
| C 19 (H) | 0.021 | — |
| C 20 (1) (Eicosanoic acid) | 0.093 | 0.005 |
| C 22 (Docosanoic acid) | 0.018 | — |

Figures are the mean of two parallel determinations.
— Location of the double bond is unknown.

preparations is shown in Table 2. The samples were prehydrolysed (3 N HCl, 3 h at 100° C) before esterification. C 15 (pentadecanoic acid) was the major fatty acid found both in membrane and LTA, counting for about 75 per cent of total fatty acids observed in the latter.

The amino acid composition of cytoplasmic membrane and LTA is given in Table 3. The cytoplasmic membrane was found to be richer in amino acids than LTA, both qualitatively and quantitatively with the exception of alanine, the major amino acid of LTA. Alanine was also released from both membrane and LTA upon digestion in 1 N NH₃ for 5 min at 100° C, indicating the presence of ester-linked alanine.

The total amounts of phosphorus in membrane and LTA preparations were estimated to 0.238 pmol/mg and 0.428 pmol/mg, respectively.

DISCUSSION

The yield of protoplasts is apparently dependent on the amount of bacteria added in the penicillin-containing medium, and the optimal ratio of inoculum/protoplast medium has to be adjusted. High speed centrifugation of protoplasts in a medium containing sucrose results in a flotation of protoplasts and thereby a considerable concentration as well as purification. Thus, as shown by microscopy (phase contrast and electron), about 70 per cent of the cells in the upper layer were



Fig 2 a. Electron micrograph of lysed protoplasts of *S. aureus*. 8 000 \times

b Higher magnification of a section through a vesicle from a lysed protoplast specimen. Note the unit membrane nature of the limiting membrane. 80 000 \times

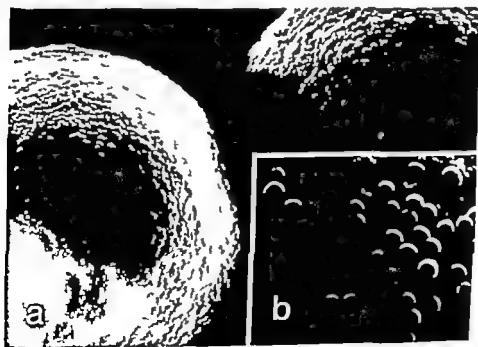


Fig 3 Scanning electron micrographs of *S. aureus* Cowan I cells adsorbed onto the surface of a Sepharose gel to which was coupled human IgG a 2,500 \times b 10 000 \times

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protoplasts. Suspension in disodium-phosphate buffer resulted in small membrane fragments, whereas sodium-potassium-phosphate buffer resulted in nearly intact membranes. The yield of purified membrane was rather low but based on chemical and serological criteria, it was free of cell wall constituents. This is very important and the high degree of purity was easily obtained by utilizing the affinity between human IgG and staphylococcal protein A. The method may also have wider application if antibodies to specific cell wall constituents covalently coupled to Sepharose or other inert particles are used. Morphologically ribosomes cannot be excluded, but chemically no nucleic acid component was detected.

Lipoteichoic acid (LTA) is a component of the cytoplasmic membrane and LTA from several bacteria has been characterized both chemically and serologically. Thus, in these experiments, LTA was used as a reliable marker for both chemical constituents and for antigenic determinants. LTA has been found to be a glycerolphosphate polymer with glycosyl and alanyl substituents and a lipid moiety (26). In the LTA of *S. aureus* Cowan I there was a glucosyl substituent and the release of alanine after a short exposure to 1 N NH_3 indicated the presence of ester linked alanine as well. This amino acid was the major one found in LTA. The major fatty acid present was C 15 in agreement with the findings of Asselineau (2) who reported 45 per cent of C 15 in *S. aureus*. Fatty acids apparently vary from bacteria to bacteria (27). The ratio glycerol/glucose in LTA of strain Cowan I was 1.0:0.22 whereas in strain H this ratio was estimated at 1.0:0.66 (6), indicating a 3 times higher glucosidic substitution in the latter strain. The phosphorus:glucose:alanine ratio in *S. aureus* Cowan I was 1.0:0.39:0.37. In group N streptococci the corresponding ratio was estimated at 1.0:0.12:0.14 (27). The glucose:alanine ratio seems similar but the degree of substitution is apparently 3 times higher in *S. aureus* Cowan I than in group N streptococci. Assuming a 10:10 ratio of phosphorus and glycerol in teichoic acid about half the amount of glycerol found in LTA belongs to the lipid component. The LTA preparation must be considered sufficiently pure for the present investigation even though some other amino acids were present, and a heterogeneity in charge was observed by electrophoretic focusing. In addition to the components of LTA, the membrane preparations of *S. aureus* Cowan I contained other sugars, amino acids and fatty acids in amounts indicating carbohydrate, protein and lipid structures quantitatively of greater importance than the LTA. Most probably a considerable part of the LTA is extracted during

isolation and purification of the membrane. The total amount of protein of strain Cowan I cytoplasmic membrane was 23 per cent, slightly more than half the amount of *S. aureus* cytoplasmic membrane given by Mitchell (14).

Theodore & Panos (24) found that the amount of fatty acids in *S. aureus* cytoplasmic membrane was 20 per cent which agrees fairly well with the present results, i.e. 17.5 per cent. As in LTA the main fatty acid was pentadecanoic acid.

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IMMUNOCHEMICAL STUDIES ON *STAPHYLOCOCCUS AUREUS* PLASMA MEMBRANE

2. Antigenic Properties

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Aasjød, P. & Grov, A. Immunochemical studies on *Staphylococcus aureus* plasma membrane. 2. Antigenic properties. Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B, 86: 139-141, 1978

Cytoplasmic membrane and lipoteichoic acid (LTA) isolated from *S. aureus* Cowan I were examined serologically. LTA contains both α - and β -glucosyl substituents at glycerol and most probably ester linked alcohols as well, all being antigenic determinants. In addition to LTA, the membrane contains a glycoprotein exhibiting antigenic determinants in both the protein and sugar moieties.

Key words: Staphylococcal cytoplasmic membrane, antigenic determinants.

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In a previous paper (10) the cytoplasmic membrane and lipoteichoic acid (LTA) were isolated from *Staphylococcus aureus* strain Cowan I and analysed chemically. Both chemically and serologically LTA was shown to be part of the plasma membrane. This membrane also contained other lipid components as well as glycoprotein(s).

The present paper reports the results of further serological examinations and a tentative characterization of the antigenic determinants.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Antigens

The cytoplasmic membrane and lipoteichoic acid (LTA) preparations used were those described previously (10). Poly A₁ from *S. aureus* 90044 (3), poly B₁ from *S. epidermidis* 1234 (6), poly B₂ from *S. epidermidis* T₁ (9), protein A and protein B (1), and peptidoglycan were included as references.

Sera

Antisera to whole bacteria were raised in New Zealand white rabbits of the Institute's breed by intravenous injections (7). Cytoplasmic membrane and LTA, mixed with Freund's complete adjuvant (Difco, USA), were first injected into one of the rabbit's hind

foot pads followed by intramuscular injections, 14 days apart, of membrane/LTA in Freund's incomplete adjuvant. Each dose contained 2 mg of antigen and each rabbit received a total of 12 to 18 mg. The rabbits were bled one week after the last injection, and the sera were inactivated by incubation for 30 min at 56°C, and 1 drop of 1 per cent merthiolate per 5 ml was added as preservative.

Trypsin Treatment

Samples (0.2 mg in 0.5 ml of phosphate buffered saline (PBS), pH 7.4) of plasma membrane and LTA were incubated with 0.1 per cent trypsin (Type XI, Sigma, USA) at 37°C overnight. The trypsin activity was stopped by an equivalent amount of trypsin inhibitor (Type I-S, Sigma).

Periodate Treatment

Samples (0.4 mg) of plasma membrane and LTA were incubated with 1 per cent sodium periodate (Merck, BRD) in water (1 ml) for 18 h in the dark at room temperature followed by dialysis against PBS.

Serological Tests

Double diffusion in agar was performed as described in (4), and indirect haemagglutination, using both normal (NSE) and tanned (TSE) sheep erythrocytes was carried out as described in (8) using a sensitizing dose of 0.2 mg of antigen per 10 ml of 0.5 per cent blood. Inhibition of

LTA by both α - and β -glucosylglycerol teichoic acids indicates that teichoic acid determinants are exposed on NSE. Secondly the results also show that both sugar anomers probably are present. The inhibition by poly B₁ and poly B₂ could be due to the blocking of anti-glycerolphosphate antibodies, but in that case, providing equal substitution, the inhibitory effect should be the same (same titre). The glucosylglycerol teichoic acids did not inhibit agglutination of sensitized TSE. Apparently these determinants are blocked on TSE, or another dominating determinant(s) is revealed. In this case, a possible determinant may be the ester-linked alanine (D-alanine). The low titres in all sera using sensitized NSE may indicate that: (a) very few of the teichoic acid determinants are exposed, (b) that relatively few antibodies to the free determinant are present, or (c) that these antibodies are bad agglutinins. The high titres obtained using sensitized TSE may either indicate strong agglutinins or indicate that the titre gives the sum of several determinants.

According to the chemical and serological examinations, the cytoplasmic membrane is composed of LTA and a glycoprotein, both components being immunogenic and exhibiting several antigenic determinants. LTA apparently contains both α - and β -glucosyl substituents. It is also strongly indicated that ester-linked alanine is an antigenic determinant. The glycoprotein exhibits antigenic determinant(s) both in the protein and sugar moieties. None of the determinants seems to have any relation to cell wall antigens.

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Indirect haemagglutination was carried out as in (2) using 4 agglutinating units of the antisera. Absorption of antigen (0.2 mg samples) with NSE and TSE was continued till the cells used for absorption no longer agglutinated in a potent antiserum. The supernatants were then dialysed, freeze-dried and tested for activity on double diffusion and indirect haemagglutination.

RESULTS

Double Diffusion in Agar

Cytoplasmic membrane gave two lines against homologous sera, one of the lines being confluent with the single line of LTA. Thus, the common component was verified serologically. Antisera against purified membrane or LTA gave no reaction with any of the reference antigens. However an antiserum to cytoplasmic membrane not absorbed with Sepharose-IgG (10), did react with protein A and B. Reaction with protein B showed that specific antibodies were formed. This again is a clear-cut demonstration of the purification effect of the absorption step (10). Periodate treatment of plasma membrane and of LTA destroyed the precipitating ability of both preparations. Trypsination removed one of the lines given by native cytoplasmic membrane, whereas the LTA-line and the corresponding line formed by the membrane remained intact. Absorption of membrane material and LTA by NSE removed all precipitating activity.

Indirect Haemagglutination

NSE sensitized with cytoplasmic membrane agglutinated in homologous sera to a titre of 1/40 whereas TSE agglutinated to 1/2560. NSE and TSE sensitized with LTA agglutinated in homologous sera to titres of 1/160 and 1/5120 respectively. The two antigens and antisera gave cross reactions with both types of blood cells.

Both poly B and poly B₀ inhibited agglutination of NSE sensitized with LTA in anti LTA sera, the inhibiting doses were 1/8 and 1/128 of 1 mg per ml respectively. No other haemagglutination systems (NSE or TSE sensitized with cytoplasmic membrane in anti-cytoplasmic membrane sera or TSE LTA in anti LTA) were inhibited by poly B₀. Nor were any of the other single reference antigens or peptidoglycan effective as inhibitors in concentrations up to 5 mg/ml.

After trypsinolysis of cytoplasmic membrane, the titre of sensitized NSE remained unchanged whereas the titre of sensitized TSE went down from 1/2560 to 1/80. The same effect was observed with trypsinated LTA. The titre of sensitized NSE remained unchanged whereas the titre of TSE went down from 1/5120 to 1/320. No activity could be

observed after treatment of membrane and LTA with sodium periodate.

TSE sensitized with supernatants after absorption of cytoplasmic membrane and LTA with NSE did not agglutinate, indicating that NSE absorbed antigenic material.

DISCUSSION

Double diffusion in agar confirmed the results of the chemical examinations (10), which showed the presence of LTA in the cytoplasmic membrane. Thus, common properties between the two preparations must be due to LTA. The lack of observable antibodies to *S. aureus* cell wall antigens in specific antisera strengthens the criteria for purity. Resistance to trypsin and sensitivity to periodate regarding the precipitating ability of LTA is in accord with previous findings that glucosylglycerol tetraether acid is the antigenic determinant (5). Although the electrophoretic experiments indicated heterogeneity of LTA, both double diffusion in agar and absorption to sheep cells showed that LTA is one antigenic entity.

The cytoplasmic membrane apparently contained one additional precipitinogen. Being both trypsin and periodate sensitive, this antigen probably is a glycoprotein in which both intact protein and sugar moieties are necessary for precipitation. Glucose was the only sugar present in LTA, whereas the other sugars demonstrated in the cytoplasmic membrane (10) are part of the glycoprotein.

The titres of NSE sensitized with cytoplasmic membrane and with LTA were unchanged after trypsinolysis of the antigens, thus the sugar determinants were still intact and exposed to antibodies. In contrast, TSE sensitized with trypsinated antigens agglutinated at a much lower titre than with untreated antigens. Since all antigens were absorbed by NSE (and TSE), the above observation implies that most of the antigenic determinants exposed to antibodies on sensitized TSE are trypsin sensitive. No serological activity was observed after periodate treatment. This may indicate that sugars are completely or partly involved in all determinants, or that binding sites to erythrocytes are dependent on periodate sensitive structures. Most probably different sites on the antigens are involved in the linkages to NSE and TSE and consequently various determinants are exposed or available to reaction with antibodies. Since all antigens were absorbed, this is clearly demonstrated by the large difference between the titres of sensitized NSE and TSE of the same serum. Also, the results of inhibition experiments point to the same conclusion. Firstly the agglutination inhibition of NSE sensitized with

IMMUNOCHEMICAL STUDIES ON THE SPECIFIC AGGLUTINOGENS OF *STAPHYLOCOCCUS AUREUS*

I Isolation and Characterization of Antigen A_1

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Grov, A., Flandrois, J. P., Fleurette, J. & Oeding, P. Immunochemical studies on the specific agglutinogens of *Staphylococcus aureus*. I. Isolation and characterization of antigen A_1 . Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B, 86: 143-147, 1978.

The specific *Staphylococcus aureus* agglutinogen A_1 has been purified and shown to be a protein with a molecular weight of about 95,000. Chemical analysis revealed all the common amino acids, except tyrosine and the sulphur-containing ones. The purified A_1 antigen was strongly immunogenic in rabbits. The antisera produced one precipitation line on double diffusion in agar against a suspension of bacteria. It also agglutinated bacteria of the A_1 -containing strains, as well as tanned sheep erythrocytes sensitized with A_1 in high dilutions. Antibodies to other known staphylococcal antigens were not detected. The identity between A_1 and Pillet's type 9 antigen was confirmed.

Key words: *Staphylococcus aureus*, agglutinogens, immunochemistry.

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Little is known of the chemical nature of the *Staphylococcus aureus* type agglutinogens, although the majority are supposed to be proteins. Isolation of these antigens is difficult, since they appear only in very small amounts in the cell wall. Only one report on the partial characterization of an agglutinogen (α) has appeared (1). The scant knowledge of the chemical nature of the specific agglutinogens is an obvious disadvantage in serotyping *S. aureus*.

The aim of the present work was to isolate and characterize the agglutinogen A_1 . This antigen was chosen because it produces a precipitation line in agar gel (22). It might be a convenient indicator during purification. Furthermore, we wanted to test the immunospecificity of the purified antigen to see if a monospecific factor serum could be produced which might replace the absorbed whole serum now in use for serotyping *S. aureus*.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Strains

S. aureus 17A, belonging to Oeding's type strains (19) and known to react strongly with A_1 factor serum, was chosen for the production of the A_1 antigen. Strain 17A has the antigenic pattern $as/h_1/h_2/263-2$ (11, 13). For comparison, antigen 9 was isolated from Pillet's type strain CK9 (23). This antigen has been reported to be identical to the A_1 antigen (4). Other type strains were included as controls according to their content of antigen A_1 (strains 670), or to the absence of A_1 but presence of one of the other antigens contained in strain 17A, viz. antigens as , h_2 and 263-2 (strains 830, 5687, 263, Cowan I 3647).

Cultivation

The bacteria used for the isolation of antigen were grown in nutrient broth, containing 15 g proteose peptone (Oxoid, England), 2.5 g liver digest (Oxoid), 5 g

IMMUNOCHEMICAL STUDIES ON THE SPECIFIC AGGLUTINOGENS OF *STAPHYLOCOCCUS AUREUS*

1 Isolation and Characterization of Antigen h_1

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Grov, A., Flandrois, J. P., Fleurette, J. & Oeding, P. Immunochemical studies on the specific agglutinogens of *Staphylococcus aureus*. 1. Isolation and characterization of antigen h_1 . Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B, 86, 143-147 1978.

The specific *Staphylococcus aureus* agglutinogen h_1 has been purified and shown to be a protein with a molecular weight of about 93,000. Chemical analyses revealed all the common amino acids, except tyrosine and the sulphur-containing ones. The purified h_1 antigen was strongly immunogenic in rabbits. The antiserum produced one precipitation line in double diffusion in agar against a suspension of bacteria. It also agglutinated bacteria of the h_1 -containing strain, as well as washed sheep erythrocytes sensitized with h_1 in high dilutions. Antibodies to other known staphylococcal antigens were not detected. The identity between h_1 and Pillet's type 9 antigen was confirmed.

Key words: *Staphylococcus aureus*, agglutinogens, immunochemistry.

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The aim of the present work was to isolate and characterize the agglutinogen h_1 . This antigen was shown previously to produce a precipitation line in agar gel (22) which might be a convenient indicator during purification. Furthermore, we wanted to test the immunogenicity of the purified antigen to see if a monospecific factor serum could be produced which might replace the absorbed whole serum now in use for serotyping *S. aureus*.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Strains

S. aureus 17A, belonging to Oeding's type strains (19) and known to react strongly with h_1 factor serum, was chosen for the production of the h_1 antigen. Strain 17A has the antigenic pattern $as/h_1/h_2/263-2$ (9-13). For comparison, antigen 9 was isolated from Pillet's type strain CK9 (23). This antigen has been reported to be identical to the h_1 antigen (4). Other type strains were included as controls according to their content of antigen h_1 (strain 570), or to the absence of h_1 but presence of one of the other antigens contained in strain 17A, viz. antigen as , h_2 and 263-2 (strains 830, 5447, 263, Cowan I, 3647).

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MATERIALS AND METHODS

Strains

S. aureus 17A, belonging to Oeding's type strains (19) and known to react strongly with h_1 factor serum, was chosen for the production of the h_1 antigen. Strain 17A has the antigenic pattern $as/h_1/h_2/263-2$ (13). For comparison, antigen 9 was isolated from Pillet's type strain CK9 (23). This antigen has been reported to be identical to the h_1 antigen (4). Other type strains were included as controls according to their content of antigen h_1 (strain 670), or to the absence of h_1 but presence of one of the other antigens contained in strain 17A, viz. antigen as , h_2 and 263-2 (strains 830, 5687, 263 Cowan I, 3647).

Cultivation

The bacteria used for the isolation of antigen were grown in nutrient broth, containing 15 g proteose peptone (Oxoid, England), 2.5 g liver digest (Oxoid) 5 g

were mixed with an equal volume of antigen in saline and incubated at 37° C for 30 min. *Ring test* precipitation was performed as described in (11) and *double diffusion in agar* as in (12). *Indirect haemagglutination* using normal (NSE) and tanned sheep erythrocytes (TSE) was performed as before (21). The amount of k_1 antigen used for sensitization was 0.1 mg per 20 ml of 0.5 per cent sheep red cells.

RESULTS

After four extractions of the 17A bacteria, only traces of k_1 could be detected in the bacterial pellet by the double diffusion test. The k_1 antigen precipitated completely at a pH of between 2.5 and 3 but so did the majority of protein A, as well as protein II.

On the ion-exchange column (DEAE-cellulose), the release of k_1 started before that of protein A, but there was a considerable overlapping between k_1 and protein A in the eluate. A less steep salt gradient did not improve the separation markedly. However, both UV-absorbing (serologically inactive) material and all pigmented material were removed on the ion-exchange column. Protein A (and B) was completely removed on the immunosorbent containing IgG from rabbit anti-protein A. The final fractionation of k_1 on Sephadex G-200 removed most of the remaining UV-absorbing material. The k_1 -positive material was found in the elution

TABLE 1. GLC Analysis of Amino Acid Composition^a of k_1 from *S. aureus*

| Amino acids | $\mu\text{mol/mg}$ | Per cent by weight |
|-------------|--------------------|--------------------|
| Ala | 0.16 | 1.4 |
| Val | 0.34 | 4.0 |
| Gly | 0.64 | 4.8 |
| Ileu | 0.42 | 5.5 |
| Leu | 0.33 | 4.3 |
| Pro | 0.66 | 7.6 |
| Thr | 0.99 | 11.8 |
| Ser | 0.36 | 3.8 |
| Phe | 0.44 | 7.2 |
| Asp | 0.84 | 11.2 |
| Tyr | 0.14 | 2.6 |
| Glu | 1.20 | 17.7 |
| Lys | 0.97 | 14.1 |
| Try | Trace | — |

^a The values given were obtained by linear extrapolation to zero time.

volume 155–189 ml, one large UV-absorbing peak being eluted at 129–154 ml and two smaller peaks at 190–224 ml and 264–295 ml. The elution pattern indicated a molecular weight of k_1 of around 100 000. Freeze-dried k_1 appeared as a white, amorphous material. The yield was 7–8 mg from 50 g of 17A bacteria (wet weight). No apparent difference was observed by using the CK9 strain. This strain was, however, more sticky than 17A. This created difficulties on extraction, which may explain a somewhat lower yield (about 5 mg per 50 g of bacteria).

Alternatively, the k_1 antigen was also purified by using an immunoadsorbent of anti- k_1 antibodies linked to Sepharose as well as the protein A adsorbent, thus excluding both the ion-exchange and gel filtration columns.

Both k_1 (17A) and k_1 (CK9) gave one single line on agar diffusion against antisera to both strains, and the lines fused completely (Fig. 1). The k_1 material inhibited completely the agglutination of 17A bacteria in k_1 -factor serum at a concentration below 0.25 mg per ml, whereas the agglutination titres of α_5 , α_2 and 263–2 factor sera were not reduced by 1 mg per ml of the k_1 material. Thus, the k_1 preparations seemed to be free of other known antigens of 17A (CK9).

Chromatographic examination of k_1 showed a pure protein material. Neither sugar nor sugar alcohols were detected, indicating the absence of isochlor and in agreement with double diffusion in agar. The k_1 antigen was resistant to a temperature

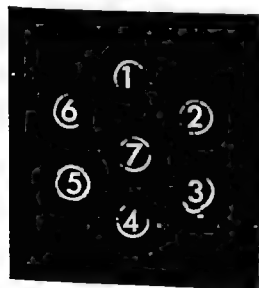


Fig. 1. Double diffusion in agar. Wells 1 and 4 contain k_1 antisera, well 7 contains 17A whole serum, wells 2 and 3 contain k_1 (17A) and k_1 (CK9), respectively both at a concentration of 0.5 mg per ml. Well 5 contains 17A bacteria and well 6 protein A (0.5 mg per ml).

yeast extract (Oxoid), and 5 g of NaCl per litre. A preculture (100 ml) incubated at 37° C for 6 h during continuous shaking (125 rot./min), was transferred to 1000 ml medium in a 2 l bottle and incubated at 37° C for 18 h during continuous shaking (125 rot./min). The bacteria were then harvested by centrifugation at 10 000 x g for 30 min. For the serological studies, the bacteria were grown at 37° C on nutrient agar (15 g of agar per litre of nutrient broth) or on mannitol salt agar (10).

Extraction

The bacteria were, without prior disruption, suspended in 1/15 M phosphate buffer pH 6.5 10 ml per g of bacteria (wet weight), incubated at 37° C for 24 h during continuous stirring, and centrifuged for 30 min at 10 000 x g. Three more extractions (until a negative precipitation reaction for A₁ in the bacterial pellet was reached) were carried out with half the initial volume of buffer and all supernatants pooled.

Isolation of A₁

To the extract (pooled supernatants) was added 0.2 M HCl drop-wise to a pH of between 3 and 2.5. The mixture was left at 4° C overnight, and then centrifuged for 30 min at 10 000 x g. The resulting precipitate was dissolved in water (pH adjusted to 8), dialysed against distilled water and applied to a column (2.8 x 30 cm) of DEAE-cellulose (DE 52 Whatman Ltd. England), stabilized by 1 M ammonium formate and distilled water. After the column was washed with distilled water (100–150 ml) the fixed material was eluted by a linear gradient of ammonium formate from 0 to 1 M with a total volume of 1000 ml using a fraction collector (7000 Ultra Rac, LKB Produktier Sweden) fitted with a Uvicord II (LKB Produktier) reading at 280 nm. Serologically active material was located by ring test precipitation and analysed by double diffusion in agar. The A₁ positive fractions were pooled, concentrated on Amicon filters (UM2 Diaflo The Netherlands), dialysed against phosphate buffered saline (PBS) and applied to an immunosorbent column (IgG from rabbit anti-protein A bound to Sepharose 4B) to remove protein A and the related protein B (5). The A₁-containing material, passing through the immunosorbent column, was then gel-filtered on a Sephadex G-200 (Pharmacia Sweden) column (3 x 55 cm, void volume 120 ml) in PBS. The A₁ positive fractions (located by double diffusion in agar) were pooled, dialysed against distilled water and freeze-dried. Reference protein A and protein B were prepared (5) and separated using a column of human IgG linked to Sepharose 4B.

Chemical Methods

Hydrolysis Samples (1–3 mg) of antigen were hydrolysed in sealed tubes, flushed with nitrogen, in 0.5 ml volumes of 3 N HCl for 3 h at 100° C and 6 N HCl for 20 h and 72 h at 105° C. The hydrolysates were evaporated to dryness *in vacuo* over NaOH pellets.

Chromatography Circular chromatography was carried out on Whatman No. 1 paper in the following solvent systems:

BuOH:HAc:H₂O (4:1:1 v/v/v) (16),

EtAc:Py:H₂O (40:11:6 v/v/v) (3)

PrOH:NH₃d (0.91:6.44 v/v/v) (1).

The detecting reagents employed were ninhydrin (17) (amino acids and amino sugars), alkaline silver nitrate (17) (reducing sugars), and sodium periodate-benzidine (2) (sugar alcohols). Quantitative determination of amino acids was performed on a Perkin Elmer 900 gas chromatograph. Trifluoroacetylated butyl ester derivatives were prepared (24) and chromatographed on a glass column (0.2 x 200 cm) of Chromosorb WAW HT 80–100 mesh, covered with 0.325 per cent EG4 (ethylene glycol adipate from Regis, USA). The flow rate of the carrier gas (N₂) was 30 ml per min, and the temperature was raised 4° C per min from 80 to 210° C, followed by 8 min at 210° C. The standard amino acid solution, AA 5 and stearic acid, used as the internal standard, were purchased from Calbiochem, USA. The amino acids in samples were estimated by linear extrapolation of the contents of hydrolysates to zero time.

Electrophoresis Sodium dodecyl sulphate (SDS)/polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis was carried out as described in (15), using 11.2 per cent gel, 0.1 per cent SDS (2 per cent SDS in the sample gel), and a Bio-Rad Model 220 apparatus. Human IgG (AB Labs, Sweden), reduced and alkylated human IgG and human serum albumin (Sigma, USA) were used as marker proteins. Immunoelectrophoresis was performed using an LKB 6800 apparatus as described by the manufacturer (LKB Produktier).

Immunoadsorbents. IgG from specific antisera was isolated by ammonium sulphate precipitation, absorbed with DEAE-Sephadex (Pharmacia), and coupled to cyanogen bromide activated Sepharose 4B (Pharmacia) as described in (7). Reduction and alkylation was performed as described in (18). Sensitivity to heat was tested by the incubation of samples (1 mg per ml) at 56, 70 and 100° C for 30 min, followed by double diffusion in agar.

Sensitivity to trypsin was tested by the incubation of samples (1 mg per ml of 0.2 M phosphate buffer pH 7.2) with trypsin (Type XI, Sigma) at 37° C for 60 min, the enzyme/substrate ratio being 1/100 by weight. Trypsin activity was terminated by the addition of an equivalent amount of trypsin inhibitor (Type I S, Sigma), and the mixture was then examined serologically for A₁ activity.

Serological Methods

Sera. Rabbit antisera to whole bacteria were obtained by the intravenous injection of formalin killed bacteria (20), and *as*, A₁, A₂ and 263–2 factor sera were obtained as described in (9, 13). Antiserum to purified A₁ was obtained in rabbits by the injection of A₁ mixed with Freund's complete adjuvant into one hind foot-pad, followed 3 to 5 weeks later by two intramuscular injections of 2 mg A₁ per dose mixed with Freund's incomplete adjuvant. Blood samples were drawn and tested at intervals from the second week after the first injection. Bacterial agglutination was carried out as described in (20). In inhibition studies the factor sera

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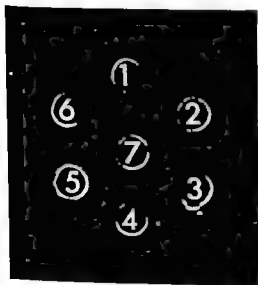


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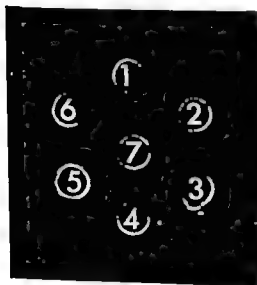


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Sera. Rabbit antisera to whole bacteria were obtained by the intravenous injection of formalin-killed bacteria (20), and α_5 , h_1 , h_2 and 763-2 factor sera were obtained as described in (9–13). Antiserum to purified h_1 was obtained in rabbits by the injection of h_1 mixed with Freund's complete adjuvant into one hind foot-pad followed 3 to 5 weeks later by two intramuscular injections of 2 mg h_1 per dose mixed with Freund's incomplete adjuvant. Blood samples were drawn and tested at intervals from the second week after the first injection. Bacterial agglutination was carried out as described in (20). In inhibition studies, the factor sera

and phenylalanine may also be of importance in this context.

A_1 is the first of the specific *S. aureus* agglutinogens which has been isolated and characterized. The successful production of a very potent monovalent A_1 antiserum is an important improvement in the serotyping technique. By the traditional technique, factor sera for typing are produced by absorption of whole rabbit sera. The factor sera are often low titer and contain dissolved antigenic material which may disturb agglutination. The present A_1 antiserum can be used in high dilutions, i.e. between 1/10,000 and 1/5 000 (2-4 agglutinating units). Provided that also other specific *S. aureus* agglutinogens can be isolated, more standardized procedures for typing of staphylococci will be possible.

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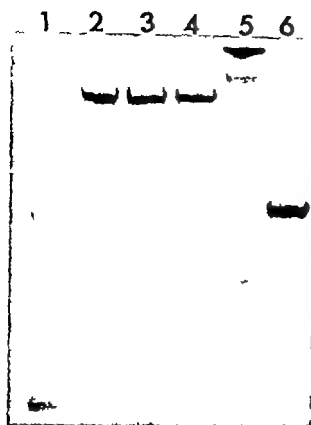


Fig 2 SDS polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis of reduced and alkylated human IgG (1), h_1 (17A) (2) h_2 (CK9) (3), h_1 (17A) unreduced (4), partially reduced human IgG (5), and human serum albumin (6).

of 70° C for 30 min, but labile at 100° C. Trypsinization destroyed the serological activity. All the common amino acids except tyrosine and the sulfur-containing ones, were demonstrated (Table 1). Only some slight variations in the molar ratios of amino acids were observed in h_1 preparations from the two staphylococcal strains examined. The major amino acids were Gln, Lys, Asp, Thr, Pro and Phe. On SDS electrophoresis only one band was observed, also after exposure to 0.2 M 2-mercaptoethanol (Fig 2). The distance moved, compared to the reference proteins, indicated a molecular weight of 95 000. Immunoelectrophoresis showed a single line using 17A whole serum. There was no electrophoretic movement of h_1 at pH 8.6.

The h_1 preparations tested were all immunogenic in rabbits. In double diffusion in agar the antisera obtained gave only one line against purified h_1 as well as against 17A bacteria (Fig 1). In one antiserum, 17A bacteria agglutinated at a dilution of 1/18 000. The 670 bacteria agglutinated at a dilution of 1/16 000 whereas all the h_1 negative strains tested, except strain Cowan I did not agglutinate at a dilution of 1/10. This also demonstrates that h_1 is free of other known antigens

of strain 17A. The reason why the titre of Cowan I agglutination increased from 1/100 of preimmune serum to 1/800 is obscure, but it is a usual observation by immunization of staphylococci or isolated compounds. However the increased titre of Cowan I agglutination did not influence the h_1 tests. Five blood samples, taken 10 days apart after the first injection, and treated with 2-mercaptoethanol, showed the same titres as untreated samples. Thus, little or no IgM activity seems to be involved in the bacterial agglutination test.

There was no agglutination of NSE treated with the h_1 antigen, whereas TSE sensitized with h_1 agglutinated in the h_1 antiserum mentioned above at a dilution of 1/18 000 and in h_1 factor serum at a dilution of 1/80. Thus, there is an apparent correspondence between antibodies participating in bacterial agglutination and indirect haemagglutination.

DISCUSSION

Antigen h_1 has been shown to be a heat-labile and trypsin-sensitive protein having a molecular weight of approximately 95 000. The present investigation confirms earlier indications (4) that Pillet's antigen 9 is identical to h_1 . Apparently the h_1 antigen is firmly bound to the cell wall. The release, probably caused by autolytic activity, was slow and required both a long incubation time and a change of buffer. By using the cell wall lytic enzyme lysostaphin (14), a more rapid release of h_1 was observed. This may indicate that h_1 is bound to the peptidoglycan structure. The amount of h_1 in the cell is apparently low like most agglutinogens. Compared to the yield normally obtained for teichoic acids (polysaccharides) h_1 comprises only about one tenth of that weight (6). Neither the wall teichoic acid nor the a_3 agglutinogen are precipitated by acid and were both removed at the first fractionation. Protein A (and protein B) was completely removed by the immuno-adsorbent, whereas the staphin at which h_2 and 263-2 were removed is more uncertain. Both the ion-exchange fractionation and the final gel filtration removed UV-absorbing materials of at least three different molecular sizes.

The purity of the h_1 antigen was confirmed in two ways. Firstly h_1 gave a single line on agar diffusion against whole sera, one single band on SDS electrophoresis, and did not inhibit agglutination in factor sera a_5 , h_1 and 263-2. Secondly the potent h_1 antisera contained only h_1 antibodies. a_5 , h_2 and 263-2 agglutinins could not be detected. The strong immunogenic property of h_1 is most likely a consequence of its relatively high molecular weight, but its high content of the amino acids threonine

and phenylalanine may also be of importance in this context.

k_1 is the first of the specific *S. aureus* agglutinogens which has been isolated and characterized. The successful production of a very potent monovalent k_1 antiserum is an important improvement in the serotyping technique. By the traditional technique, factor sera for typing are produced by absorption of whole rabbit sera. The factor sera are often low titered and contain dissolved antigenic material which may disturb agglutination. The present k_1 antiserum can be used in high dilutions, i.e. between 1/10,000 and 1/5 000 (2-4 agglutinating units). Provided that also other specific *S. aureus* agglutinogens can be isolated, more standardized procedures for typing of staphylococci will be possible.

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IN VITRO EFFECT OF COLCHICINE ON NEUTROPHIL GRANULOCYTE LOCOMOTION

Assessment of the Effect of Colchicine on Chemotaxis, Chemokinesis and Spontaneous Motility using a Modified Reversible Boyden Chamber

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Valerius N. H. *In vitro* effect of colchicine on neutrophil granulocyte locomotion. Assessment of the effect of colchicine on chemotaxis, chemokinesis and spontaneous motility using a modified reversible Boyden chamber. *Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B*, 86: 149-154, 1978.

The effect of colchicine on human neutrophil granulocyte chemotaxis, chemokinesis and spontaneous motility was examined, using a modified reversible Boyden chamber. Colchicine was shown to inhibit the attraction of neutrophils to casein and to a bacterial chemotactic factor in concentrations as low as 10^{-7} M. Experiments in which the absolute concentrations and the concentration gradients of the chemotactic agent were varied, revealed that colchicine inhibited chemokinesis rather than chemotaxis. The spontaneous motility measured in the absence of chemotactic agents was not inhibited by colchicine. Pre-incubation of the cells with a bacterial chemotactic factor did not change the sensitivity of the cells to colchicine. It is concluded that the integrity of microtubule function is not necessary for the ability of the cells to discern a concentration gradient or to react to this with directional locomotion. Thus the inhibitory effect of colchicine on neutrophil granulocyte chemokinesis may not depend on its inhibition of microtubule function. It is suggested that colchicine may block the still unidentified membrane mechanism involved in the translation of the recognition signal into an appropriate locomotory cell response.

Key words: neutrophil granulocyte, chemotaxis, locomotion, colchicine, microtubules.

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Leukocytes may respond to a variety of chemical stimuli with enhanced active migration (22) which may be directional (chemotactic) or random (chemokinetic) (13). A chemotactic response may occur when leukocytes are exposed to a concentration gradient of the chemical stimulus, towards the source of which the cells can then be shown to migrate actively. Chemokinesis is the enhanced non-directional active locomotion observed on exposure of the cells to most chemottractants in the absence of a concentration gradient. Thus in Boyden chemotaxis assays (8) in which the cells are allowed to migrate through micro-pore filters towards a

chemotactic agent, the activity observed will result from the combined effects of chemotaxis and chemokinesis (21, 22, 23).

The ability of leukocytes to respond to chemical gradients with directional locomotion is believed to require an intact microtubule function (1). Colchicine is an efficient inhibitor of the microtubule system. This agent acts by binding to monomeric tubulin thus preventing its polymerization into microtubules (19). Most previous studies have found antitubulins to be effective inhibitors of leukocyte chemotaxis (2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 9, 11, 18, 20). In one investigation (4) it was also observed that the random movement of granulocytes was affected

only slightly by pre-treatment of the cells with demecolcine, an active derivative of colchicine. However in this latter study the techniques for measuring chemotaxis and random motility were quite different from each other and no attempt was made to distinguish between the effect of demecolcine on chemotaxis and chemokinesis.

It was therefore decided to examine the separate effects of colchicine on neutrophil granulocyte spontaneous motility, chemotaxis and chemokinesis, using a modified Boyden technique in which the concentrations of the chemoattractant were varied above and below the filter in a series of tests. This permits evaluation of the influence of both the concentration gradient of the chemoattractant (chemotaxis) and its absolute concentration (chemokinesis) (21-23).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The polymorphonuclear leukocyte (PMN) chemotactic activity was determined using a modified reversible Boyden chamber as previously described (21). Briefly blood leukocytes from normal donors were suspended in Gey's balanced salt solution (GBSS) containing 2% human albumin at a concentration of 1×10^6 PMN per ml after removal of the red cells by dextran sedimentation and hypotonic lysis. The chemotactic agents were casein, dissolved in GBSS at 5 mg per ml, and a bacterial chemotactic factor (BCF), a culture filtrate of *E. coli* diluted with GBSS as indicated. In the upper compartment of the Boyden chamber 5×10^5 PMN were placed, being separated from the chemotactic agent by a 3 micron pore size micropore filter (Sartorius, Göttingen, Germany). The chambers were incubated for 2½ h at 37° C. After incubation for 2 h the chambers were turned upside down in order to prevent cell detachment from the lower surface of the filter. The filters were then fixed and stained with haematoxyline. Counting was made of cells that had migrated completely through the filters and were lying on their attractant surfaces, using an automatic image analysis system (Classimat, Lertz, Wetzlar, Germany). The chemotactic activity was expressed as the mean number of cells per screen field at 10×10 amplification. All experiments were performed in triplicate, and the results represent the median.

The distinction between chemotaxis and chemokinesis was performed using the «checkerboard» assay first described by Zigmond & Hirsch (23). This consisted of a series of chambers in which the chemoattractant was placed above the filter in the cell compartment, below the filter or in both compartments at varying concentrations. Each triplicate of samples thus differed from the others as regards the absolute concentration of the attractant, the concentration gradient across the filter or both. Details of the concentrations used are shown in Table I.

Incubations with colchicine (Sandoz, Basel, Switzerland) at the concentrations indicated were performed for

60 min at 37° C with a cell concentration at 2×10^6 PMN per ml. After this incubation, the cell suspensions were diluted with equal volumes of GBSS containing 4% human albumin before being tested for leukotactic activity in the continued presence of colchicine at half the indicated concentrations. In the experiments using cells pre-incubated with either BCF diluted 1:3 with GBSS or GBSS this was performed for 30 min at 17° C. After pre-incubation, the cells were washed twice in GBSS before being tested as described above with varying concentrations of colchicine.

All experiments included control samples incubated without colchicine. The inhibition of the activity was determined as

$$100 - \frac{(\text{activity in colchicine-treated samples}) \times 100}{\text{activity in control samples}}$$

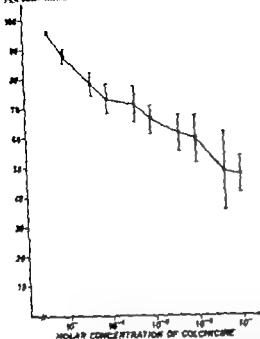
Viability of the cells was assured by Trypan Blue exclusion test.

RESULTS

It will be seen from Fig. 1 that pre-incubation of PMN at varying concentrations of colchicine resulted in a dose-dependent inhibition of the leukotactic response of the PMN to both casein and BCF. This inhibition was obvious at concentrations down to 10^{-7} M. A 50% inhibition was observed after incubation with colchicine at a concentration of 10^{-6} M. There was no significant difference in the inhibitory effect of colchicine on attraction with either casein or BCF.

The effect of colchicine at a concentration of 5×10^{-6} M on chemotaxis and chemokinesis induced by BCF can be seen from Table I. In these experiments the cells were allowed to migrate through the filter in positive, i.e. from lower towards higher concentrations of BCF and in negative concentration gradients and without gradients at different concentrations of BCF. Along the diagonals from upper left to lower right in the tables, the absolute concentration of the chemotactic factor increased in the absence of a concentration gradient across the filter. The figures on these lines thus indicate the chemokinetic activity. It can be seen that the activity of both colchicine-treated and untreated cells increased with increasing concentrations of BCF. However the increase was much lower in the colchicine-treated cells than in the untreated cells, thus showing that colchicine has a strong inhibitory effect on chemokinesis. The concentration gradient across the filter was positive above these diagonals and negative below. The higher figures above than below in both colchicine-treated cells and untreated cells indicate a uni-directional locomotion of the cells towards BCF. The influence of the concentration gradient at various absolute concentrations of BCF is seen along the lines parallel to the diagonals.

PER CENT INHIBITION



PER CENT INHIBITION

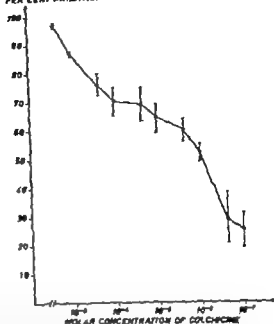


Fig. 1 Dose-dependent inhibition by colchicine of the locomotory response of PMN. Results from attraction with casein (5 mg per ml) (A) and BCF (diluted 1:3 with Gey's solution) (B). Abscissa: Molar concentration of colchicine. Ordinate: Percentage inhibition of activity. Mean \pm 1 SEM of four experiments.

from lower left to upper right. Along these lines the concentration gradients reversed from negative to positive, while the absolute concentrations of BCF were kept constant. Although the figures are generally lower in colchicine-treated cells than in untreated cells as the result of inhibited chemokinesis, the proportional increase in the cell numbers along these lines is nearly equal. This shows that the cells had retained their ability to discern and react with directional locomotion to a concentration gradient.

The tables also show that the activity in the complete absence of chemotactic agents was equal in colchicine-treated and untreated cells, thus indicating that the spontaneous motility of PMN is not affected by colchicine at this concentration. The results of using casein as the chemotactic agent are not shown here, but they did not differ from those obtained with BCF.

Fig. 2 shows the dose-dependent inhibition by colchicine of PMN attraction with BCF after pre-incubation of the cells with BCF or GBS. It can be seen that the inhibition curves are almost identical, thus indicating that pre-incubation of the cells with BCF did not affect the sensitivity of the cells to colchicine.

TABLE 1. Effect of Varying the Concentration Gradient and the Absolute Concentration of a Bacterial Chemotactic Factor (BCF) on the Locomotory Response of Human Neutrophilic Granulocytes, Pre-incubated with either Gey's Solution (A) or Colchicine at a Concentration of 5×10^{-6} M (B) for 60 min at 37°C. Mean of 7 experiments.

| A | Concentration of BCF (%) in Attractant Compartment | | | | |
|--------------------------|--|-----|----|-----|-----|
| | 0 | 12 | 20 | 32 | |
| Concentration of BCF (%) | 0 | 4 | 69 | 117 | 304 |
| in Cell | 12 | 20 | 79 | 142 | 275 |
| Compartment | 20 | 25 | 72 | 161 | 291 |
| | 32 | 111 | 11 | 181 | 246 |
| B | Concentration of BCF (%) in Attractant Compartment | | | | |
| | 0 | 12 | 20 | 32 | |
| Concentration of BCF (%) | 0 | 5 | 22 | 38 | 61 |
| in Cell | 12 | 7 | 18 | 27 | 60 |
| Compartment | 20 | 6 | 18 | 22 | 51 |
| | 32 | 6 | 18 | 31 | 58 |

In all samples tested, the viability of the cells was ensured by Trypan Blue exclusion test showing more than 95% dye-excluding cells

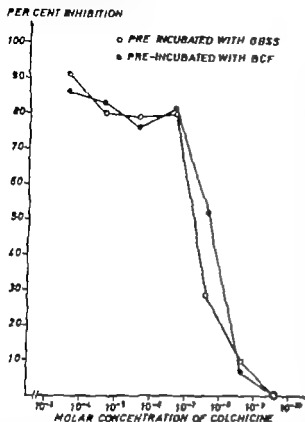


Fig. 2 Dose-dependent inhibition by colchicine of the attraction of PMN with BCF (diluted 1:3 with Gey's solution). The cells were pre-incubated either with BCF (diluted 1:3) (closed circles) or with Gey's solution (open circles). Abscissa: Molar concentration of colchicine. Ordinate: Percentage inhibition of activity. Mean of two experiments.

DISCUSSION

It is generally recognized that colchicine affects the microtubular system in the cells by binding to tubulin, thus preventing its polymerization into functional microtubules (19). However colchicine has been shown to affect also certain cell functions which are not supposed to be microtubule dependent such as nucleoside transport across cell membranes (5) and oxygen consumption in phagocytes (14).

Most authors are agreed that colchicine and other antitubulins act as efficient inhibitors of leukocyte chemotaxis *in vitro* (2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 9, 11, 18, 20). The failure of one study (10) to demonstrate this was probably the result of omitting pre-incubation of the cells with colchicine. The present results shown in Fig. 1 are quite consistent with these previous observations in showing a dose-dependent inhibition by colchicine of the attraction of human PMN

by casein and BCF. This inhibition was obvious at colchicine concentrations at 10^{-7} M.

It was also evident that, even at very high concentrations of colchicine (10^{-3} M) some cells had retained their ability to migrate through the filters, thus indicating that the inhibition was not due to cell death. This was also confirmed by the results of Trypan Blue exclusion tests.

It has previously been pointed out that leukocytes show enhanced non-directional locomotion when exposed to chemotactic agents in the absence of a concentration gradient (22, 23). This type of stimulated locomotion has recently been termed chemokinesis (13) as distinct from chemotaxis which is the stimulated migration in the direction of a concentration gradient. The leukotactic response observed in a micropore filter system has been shown to be the result of the combined effects of chemotaxis and chemokinesis (21, 22). Also the inhibition of this response may be due to either inhibition of chemotaxis, chemokinesis, or both.

The observation that demecolcine strongly inhibited the migration of PMN towards casein in Boyden chambers while affecting the velocity of PMN moving randomly on a glass slide to a much lesser extent (4) has supported the theory that intact microtubules are important for the chemotactic response of neutrophils (1). The experiments shown in Table 1 were designed to explore these results further (4) by analysing the separate effects of colchicine on PMN spontaneous motility, chemotaxis and chemokinesis in a Boyden chamber using a checkerboard assay. It was therefore surprising that colchicine had a strong inhibitory effect on neutrophil chemokinesis, while the cells retained their ability to discern a chemotactic gradient and to respond to this with directional locomotion. However the results are consistent with the data, but not with their interpretation in this study (4). Furthermore, the observation that colchicine-treated and untreated neutrophils migrated equally well in the absence of chemotactic factors on either side of the filter is also consistent with previous findings (4).

In one study colchicine was found to inhibit chemotaxis but not chemokinesis of lymphoblasts in a similar checkerboard assay (20). The difference between this observation and the present results may arise from the fact that the study on lymphoblasts used a front-line technique (22) for measuring leukocyte locomotion, while in the present study the number of migrating cells was considered. It is also possible, although less likely that lymphoblasts may differ from granulocytes in the way in which they are affected by colchicine, or that they use different mechanisms for sensing and reacting to chemotactic stimuli.

It is believed that the topographical distribution of certain cell membrane units is actively regulated and that this regulation is controlled by microtubules. Thus Concanavalin-A (Con-A) receptors show an essentially uniform distribution on the normal PMN surface. However pre-incubation of PMN with colchicine or other antitubulins permits movement of the Con-A-receptor complexes in the cell membrane to form caps at one end of the cell (16-17). It has been shown (15) that pre-incubation of PMN with a urate crystal-induced serum chemotactic factor inhibits this Con-A capping in colchicine treated cells. It was proposed that the chemotactic factor might induce polymerization of tubulin into microtubules, thus preventing colchicine from binding to tubulin. Also exposure of PMN to a complement-derived chemotactic factor has been shown morphologically to increase the number of microtubules (12).

From these results it seemed possible that pre-incubation of PMN with a chemotactic factor might prevent or diminish the inhibition by colchicine of their chemokinetic response. However pre-incubation of PMN with BCF did not result in any change in their sensitivity to colchicine as compared to control cells not pre-incubated with BCF as shown in Fig. 2. This observation might be because in contrast to certain other chemotactic factors, BCF may not induce microtubule assembly in the PMN. This interpretation implies that the induction of microtubule assembly is not a necessary event in the locomotory response of the PMN. However from this observation it might also be possible to argue that the colchicine inhibition of PMN chemokinesis does not depend on its antitubulin activity.

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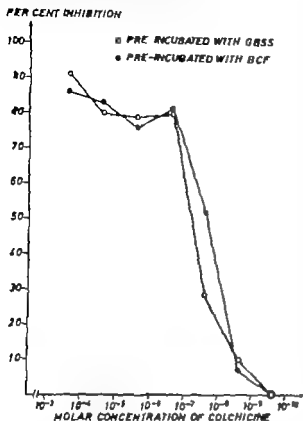


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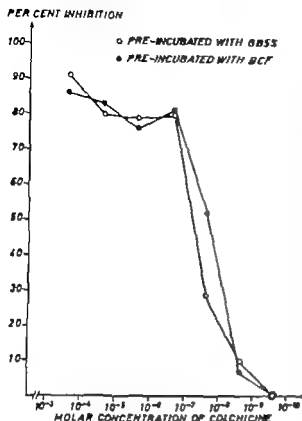


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IN VITRO SENSITIVITY OF TRICHOMONAS VAGINALIS AND CANDIDA ALBICANS TO CHEMOTHERAPEUTIC AGENTS

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Lövgren T. & Salmela I. In vitro sensitivity of *Trichomonas vaginalis* and *Candida albicans* to chemotherapeutic agents. Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B 86: 155-158, 1978.

Strains of fresh clinical isolates of *Trichomonas vaginalis* and *Candida albicans* have been tested *in vitro* for their sensitivity to eight drugs used in the therapy of monilial and trichomonal vaginitis. Three of the chemotherapeutic agents, chlorchamidoil, clotrimazole and bryoxyquinoline, were effective against both organisms. Tinidazole and metronidazole were active against *T. vaginalis*. The strains of *C. albicans* were also sensitive to trichomycin, natamycin and nystatin. Tinidazole was the most effective trichomonocidal, clotrimazole and chlorchamidoil were most effective against *C. albicans*, while chlorchamidoil had the best *in vitro* effect against both organisms. The ranges of the MICs are compared to values previously reported.

Key words: Chemotherapeutic agents, *C. albicans*, *T. vaginalis*.

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The use of narrow spectrum chemotherapeutics is generally recommended to avoid many adverse effects, but in the treatment of gynecological disorders chemotherapeutics with a broad spectrum of activity have often the greatest therapeutic value. One of the reasons for this is that it is not always possible to perform an exact microbiological determination before starting therapy. In view of the association between monilial and trichomonal vaginitis, a therapy which promises to control both is desirable. Actually many of the drugs for these frequently occurring gynecological disorders are used for the treatment of both diseases (1,3). Thus a comparative test of their effectiveness *in vitro* has been considered applicable. Such a test should use the same experimental conditions and take into account the fact that the response of the organisms may alter if not freshly isolated strains are used (3, 8, 14).

The present paper reports the results of sensitivity tests of seven respectively eight fresh clinical isolates of *T. vaginalis* and *C. albicans* to eight

chemotherapeutic agents. The results are discussed in relation to effectiveness, therapeutic doses and minimum inhibitory concentrations. As isolates appear to vary in susceptibility *in vitro* tests may have clinical utility.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The freshly isolated strains of *T. vaginalis* and *C. albicans* were taken from a variety of vaginal specimens submitted to the Department of Medical Microbiology of the University of Turku.

Before use the *T. vaginalis* was grown on Trichomonas Medium CM 161 (Oxoid) containing sterile heat inactivated horse serum (80 ml/l), sodiumbenzylpenicillin (1000 units/ml) and streptomycin sulfate (500 µg/ml) at 37° C. The organism was seeded into 10 ml fresh medium and incubated for 48 hours. After shaking gently to obtain uniform distribution the number of viable organisms was estimated. The number of viable trichomonads was counted in a haemocytological counting chamber under a microscope at magnification of $\times 300$. If the viability was good (at least 250 000 viable organisms per ml) 2 ml was added to 50 ml fresh

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TABLE 2. Minimum Inhibitory Concentration (MIC) of Different Chemotherapeutic Agents for Freshly Isolated Strains of *C. albicans* as Determined According to Materials and Methods Corresponding Values Reported in the Literature Are Given at the Bottom of the Table

| Series of <i>C. albicans</i> | MIC ($\mu\text{g/ml}$) | | | | | | Conc. range tested ($\mu\text{g/ml}$) |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------|--------------------------|------------------------|------------------------------------|---|
| | Clotrimazole (0.1-5) | Trichomycin (1-100) | Nata-mycin (1-50) | Chlorch-nalidol (0.1-10) | Broxyquino-lum (1-100) | Nystatin (1-100) | |
| 1 | 1 | 5 | 15 | 1 | 10 | 17 | |
| 2 | | 1 | 5 | | 15 | 13 | |
| 3 | 1 | 5 | 5 | 1 | 10 | 25 | |
| 4 | 1 | 1 | 5 | 5 | 10 | 10 | |
| 5 | 1 | 5 | 5 | 1 | 10 | 33 | |
| 6 | 1 | 5 | 5 | 1 | 10 | 13 | |
| 7 | 5 | 5 | >50 | 1 | 10 | 13 | |
| 8 | 1 | 10 | 5 | 1 | 20 | 33 | |
| Mean value | 1.6 | 4.6 | 6.4 | 1.6 | 12 | 20 | |
| Values given in literature (Ref.) | 0.02-29.6 (2, 18, 7 8, 9) | 0.02-5 (19, 17 3, 16) | 3-6 (19, 3, 16) | 1.5-6 (12) | 4 (20) | 1.5-10 (19, 3, 1, 2, 15, 18) | |

DISCUSSION

The information provided by the pharmaceutical industry (13) about the clinical effectiveness of the drugs and the recommended therapeutic doses for the treatment of *T. vaginalis* and *C. albicans* infections is summarized in Table 3. All of the tested chemotherapeutic agents except nystatin are reported to be effective against a *T. vaginalis* infection. The *in vitro* response of the freshly isolated trichomonads to the drugs shows however that only five of them, metronidazole, clotrimazole, chlorchinalidol, broxyquimoline and tinidazole are

trichomonocidal to the strains tested. Only one of the strains was sensitive to trichomycin while none was sensitive to natamycin. Numerous studies of the *in vitro* activity of the chemotherapeutic agents have been conducted by a number of investigators. It must be realized that the experimental conditions influence the results which has to be taken into consideration when data found in the literature are compared (3 & 14). For comparison reported MIC values for *T. vaginalis* have been included in Table 1. The values for metronidazole are in the range of our results although our MIC values are higher. Paredes & Harkins (14) have also found natamycin

TABLE 3. The sensitivity of *T. vaginalis* and *C. albicans* to the Tested Therapeutic Agents and the Recommended Therapeutic Doses According to Pharmacia Femcon (13)

| Chemotherapeutic agent | | <i>T. vaginalis</i> | <i>C. albicans</i> | Recommended therapeutic dose (mg/24 hours) | |
|------------------------|----------------|---------------------|--------------------|--|---------|
| | | | | Systemic | Local |
| Metronidazole | (Flagyl®) | + | | 400-600 | 500 |
| Clotrimazole | (Canesten®) | + | + | | 100 |
| Trichomycin | (Trichomycin®) | | + | 150-300 | 150-300 |
| Natamycin | (Pimarflex®) | | + | 300-400 | 25 |
| Chlorchinalidol | (Seroquin®) | + | + | | 200 |
| Broxyquimoline | (Starogyn®) | + | + | | 100 |
| Tinidazole | (Tindaz®) | + | | 300-500 | |
| Polynidazole-sodium | (Betadon®) | + | + | | 200 |
| Nystatin | (Nystatin®) | | + | 150 | 30 |

medium. The viability was checked after 48 hours after which the seeded media was transferred in 3 ml aliquots to small test tubes. Then 0.2 ml of a serial dilution of a drug was added. A standard tube without chemotherapeutics was always included. After 24 hours each tube was screened and the highest dilution of drug without any motile organisms was recorded as the minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC). The standard tube contained 3.8×10^3 viable organisms per ml when the tubes containing a serial dilution of the drugs were screened. Each strain was tested for sensitivity to seven chemotherapeutics. From the sample containing no motile trichomonads 0.2 ml was seeded to 3 ml fresh medium and the subculture was incubated for a further 48 hours for evaluation of the final results.

For determination of the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) for *C. albicans* an agar dilution technique was used. The diluted chemotherapeutics were mixed with melted 4% Sabouraud's glucose agar (Merck) and poured into sterile petri plates. The yeast suspensions were prepared in sterile physiologic saline from 24 hours slope cultures grown at 37° C. 0.1 ml of the yeast suspension containing about 1000–2000 cells per ml was transferred with a sterile pipette on the agar plate. Results were recorded after 48 hours at 37° C. The lowest concentration of the chemotherapeutic that completely inhibited growth was taken as the MIC.

The drugs used were metronidazole (Flagyl®), clotrimazole (Canesten®), trichomycin (Trichomycin®), natamycin (Pimaricin®), chlorchinaldol (Steronan®), broxyquinoline (Starogyn®), tinidazole (Tindign®) and nystatin (Nystad®). Drug solutions were prepared in water or dimethylformamide (DMP). The final concen-

tration of DMP had no effect on the growth of any of the organisms. One strain was always tested simultaneously against the different chemotherapeutic agents. Nystatin was not tested for *T. vaginalis* and metronidazole and tinidazole were not tested for *C. albicans*.

RESULTS

Table 1 shows the MIC values of the seven components tested for seven strains of *T. vaginalis*. All the strains were resistant to natamycin and only one of the seven strains was sensitive to trichomycin. The ranges of the MICs for the additional five chemotherapeutic agents, which have to be considered effective *in vitro* trichomonasides, were minimal for broxyquinoline and minimal for tinidazole. In general there was a great variability in the sensitivity of different strains of *T. vaginalis* to a drug. One of the strains was resistant to chlorchinaldol.

The results of the examination of the antimycotic effects of the chemotherapeutic agents are shown in Table 2. The sensitivity of eight freshly isolated strains of *C. albicans* was tested against six of the drugs. The ranges of the MICs were minimal with clotrimazole and chlorchinaldol and maximal with nystatin. One of the strains tested was resistant to natamycin. The strains of *C. albicans* show less variation in their sensitivity to a chemotherapeutic agent as compared to the strains of *T. vaginalis*.

TABLE 1. Minimum Inhibitory Concentration (MIC) of Different Chemotherapeutic Agents for Freshly Isolated Strains of *T. vaginalis* as Determined According to Materials and Methods. Corresponding Values Reported in the Literature Are Given at the Bottom of the Table

| MIC (µg/ml) | | | | | | | |
|---|-------------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Strain of <i>T. vaginalis</i> | Metroni- zole (0.3–100) | Clotrim- azole (5–666) | Tricho- mycin (10–666) | Nata- mycin (1–666) | Chlorch- inaldol (1–66) | Broxyqui- noline (10–500) | Tinida- zole (0.1–10) |
| 1 | 1 | 666 | 300 | >666 | 50 | 400 | 2 |
| 2 | 25 | 133 | >666 | >666 | 15 | 500 | 5 |
| 3 | 15 | 133 | >666 | >666 | 50 | 400 | 0.3 |
| 4 | 5 | 200 | >666 | >666 | 50 | 200 | 10 |
| 5 | 5 | 200 | >666 | >666 | 50 | 100 | 2.5 |
| 6 | 2 | 50 | >666 | >666 | 5 | 200 | 2 |
| 7 | 5 | 50 | >666 | >666 | >66 | 500 | 2.5 |
| Mean Value | 8 | 260 | | | 37 | 330 | 3.5 |
| Values given in litera- ture (Ref.) | 0.075–1.4 (1) 1.4 (4) 5 | 100 (18) | 10 (9) | 15–30 (16) | 740 (14) | 40 (10) | 0.5–10 (4) 5 |

TABLE 2. Minimum Inhibitory Concentration (MIC) of Different Chemotherapeutic Agents for Freshly Isolated Strains of *C. albicans* as Determined According to Materials and Methods. Corresponding Values Reported in the Literature Are Given at the Bottom of the Table

| Strain of <i>C. albicans</i> | MIC (µg/ml) | | | | | | Conc. range tested (µg/ml) |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------|------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------------------|----------------------------|
| | Clotrimazole (0.1-5) | Trichomycetin (1-100) | Nata mycin (1-50) | Chlorchamidot (0.1-10) | Bronxyquinoline (1-100) | Nystatin (1-100) | |
| 1 | 1 | 5 | 15 | 1 | 10 | 17 | |
| 2 | | 1 | 5 | | 15 | 13 | |
| 3 | 1 | 5 | 5 | 1 | 10 | 25 | |
| 4 | 1 | 1 | 5 | 5 | 10 | 10 | |
| 5 | 1 | 5 | 5 | 1 | 10 | 33 | |
| 6 | 1 | 5 | 5 | 1 | 10 | 13 | |
| 7 | 5 | 5 | >50 | 1 | 10 | 13 | |
| 8 | 1 | 10 | 5 | 1 | 20 | 33 | |
| Mean value | 1.6 | 4.6 | 6.4 | 1.6 | 12 | 20 | |
| Values given in literature (Ref.) | 0.02-29.6 (2, 18, 7 8, 9) | 0.02-5 (19, 17 3, 16) | 3-6 (19, 3, 16) | 1.5-6 (12) | 4 (20) | 1.5-10 (19, 3, 1, 2, 15, 18) | |

DISCUSSION

The information provided by the pharmaceutical industry (13) about the clinical effectiveness of the drugs and the recommended therapeutic doses for the treatment of *T. vaginalis* and *C. albicans* infections is summarized in Table 3. All of the tested chemotherapeutic agents except nystatin are reported to be effective against a *T. vaginalis* infection. The *in vitro* response of the freshly isolated trichomonads to the drugs shows however that only five of them, metronidazole, clotrimazole, chlorchamidot, bronxyquinoline and tinidazole are

trichomonocidal to the strains tested. Only one of the strains was sensitive to trichomycetin while none was sensitive to natamycin. Numerous studies of the *in vitro* activity of the chemotherapeutic agents have been conducted by a number of investigators. It must be realized that the experimental conditions influence the results which has to be taken into consideration when data found in the literature are compared (3, 8, 14). For comparison reported MIC values for *T. vaginalis* have been included in Table 1. The values for metronidazole are in the range of our results although our MIC values are higher. Parades & Hawkins (14) have also found natamycin

TABLE 3. The sensitivity of *T. vaginalis* and *C. albicans* to the Tested Therapeutic Agents and the Recommended Therapeutic Doses According to Pharmacia Femica (13)

| Chemotherapeutic agent | | <i>T. vaginalis</i> | <i>C. albicans</i> | Recommended therapeutic dose (mg/24 hours) | |
|------------------------|------------------|---------------------|--------------------|--|---------|
| | | | | Systemic | Local |
| Metronidazole | (Flag®) | + | | 400-600 | 500 |
| Clotrimazole | (Canesten®) | + | + | | 100 |
| Trichomycetin | (Trichomycetin®) | + | + | 150-300 | 150-300 |
| Natamycin | (Fungizone®) | + | + | 300-400 | 25 |
| Chlorchamidot | (Cseroten®) | + | + | | 200 |
| Bronxyquinoline | (Scaropys®) | + | + | | 100 |
| Tinidazole | (Tangyr®) | + | | 300-500 | |
| Polyridone-iodine | (Betadone®) | + | + | | 200 |
| Nyktaz | (Nyktoid®) | | + | 150 | 30 |

medium. The viability was checked after 48 hours after which the seeded media was transferred in 3 ml aliquots to small test tubes. Then 0.2 ml of a serial dilution of a drug was added. A standard tube without chemotherapeutics was always included. After 24 hours each tube was screened and the highest dilution of drug without any motile organisms was recorded as the minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC). The standard tube contained 3.8×10^5 viable organisms per ml when the tubes containing a serial dilution of the drugs were screened. Each strain was tested for sensitivity to seven chemotherapeutics. From the sample containing no motile trichomonads 0.2 ml was seeded in 3 ml fresh medium and the subculture was incubated for a further 48 hours for evaluation of the final results.

For determination of the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) for *C. albicans* an agar dilution technique was used. The diluted chemotherapeutics were mixed with melted 4% Sabouraud's glucose agar (Merck) and poured into sterile petri plates. The yeast suspensions were prepared in sterile physiologic saline from 24 hours slope cultures grown at 37° C. 0.1 ml of the yeast suspension containing about 1000–2000 cells per ml was transferred with a sterile pipette on the agar plate. Results were recorded after 48 hours at 37° C. The lowest concentration of the chemotherapeutic that completely inhibited growth was taken as the MIC.

The drugs used were metronidazole (Flagyl®), clotrimazole (Canesten®), trichomycin (Trichomycin®), natamycin (Pimaricin®), chlorchinaldol (Stereosan®), broxyquinoline (Siaurogyn®), tinidazole (Tingyn®) and nystatin (Nystacid®). Drug solutions were prepared in water or dimethylformamide (DMP). The final concen-

tration of DMP had no effect on the growth of any of the organisms. One strain was always tested simultaneously against the different chemotherapeutic agents. Nystatin was not tested for *T. vaginalis* and metronidazole and tinidazole were not tested for *C. albicans*.

RESULTS

Table 1 shows the MIC values of the seven components tested for seven strains of *T. vaginalis*. All the strains were resistant to natamycin and only one of the seven strains was sensitive to trichomycin. The ranges of the MICs for the additional five chemotherapeutic agents, which have to be considered effective *in vitro* trichomonocides, were maximal for broxyquinoline and minimal for tinidazole. In general there was a great variability in the sensitivity of different strains of *T. vaginalis* to a drug. One of the strains was resistant to chlorchinaldol.

The results of the examination of the antimycotic effects of the chemotherapeutic agents are shown in Table 2. The sensitivity of eight freshly isolated strains of *C. albicans* was tested against six of the drugs. The ranges of the MICs were minimal with clotrimazole and chlorchinaldol and maximal with nystatin. One of the strains tested was resistant to natamycin. The strains of *C. albicans* show less variation in their sensitivity to a chemotherapeutic agent as compared to the strains of *T. vaginalis*.

TABLE 1 Minimum Inhibitory Concentration (MIC) of Different Chemotherapeutic Agents for Freshly Isolated Strains of *T. vaginalis* as Determined According to Materials and Methods. Corresponding Values Reported in the Literature Are Given at the Bottom of the Table

| MIC (µg/ml) | | | | | | | | |
|---|---------------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------------|
| Strain of <i>T. vaginalis</i> | Metronida- zole (0.3–100) | Clotrima- zole (5–666) | Tricho- mycin (10–666) | Nata- mycin (1–666) | Chlorchi- naldol (1–66) | Broxyqui- noline (10–500) | Tinida- zole (0.1–10) | Conc. range tested (µg/ml) |
| 1 | 1 | 666 | 300 | >666 | 50 | 400 | 2 | |
| 2 | 25 | 333 | >666 | >666 | 15 | 500 | 5 | |
| 3 | 15 | 333 | >666 | >666 | 50 | 400 | 0.3 | |
| 4 | 5 | 200 | >666 | >666 | 50 | 700 | 10 | |
| 5 | 5 | 200 | >666 | >666 | 50 | 100 | 2.5 | |
| 6 | 2 | 50 | >666 | >666 | 5 | 200 | 2 | |
| 7 | 5 | 50 | >666 | >666 | >66 | 500 | 2.5 | |
| Mean Value | 8 | 260 | | | 37 | 330 | 3.5 | |
| Values given in literature (Ref.) | 0.075–1.4 (11–14) 4–5) | 100 (18) | 10 (9) | 15–30 (16) 740 (14) | | 40 (10) | 0.5–1.0 (4–5) | |

TABLE 2. Minimum Inhibitory Concentration (MIC) of Different Chemotherapeutic Agents for Freshly Isolated Strains of *C. albicans* as Determined According to Materials and Methods. Corresponding Values Reported in the Literature Are Given at the Bottom of the Table

| MIC (µg/ml) | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------------------|----------------------------|
| Series of <i>C. albicans</i> | Clotrimazole (0.1-5) | Trichomycin (1-100) | Nata-mycin (1-50) | Chlorch-maldol (0.1-10) | Broxyquino-line (1-100) | Nystatin (1-100) | Conc. range tested (µg/ml) |
| 1 | 1 | 5 | 15 | 1 | 10 | 17 | |
| 2 | | 1 | 5 | | 15 | 13 | |
| 3 | 1 | 5 | 5 | 1 | 10 | 25 | |
| 4 | 1 | 1 | 5 | 5 | 10 | 10 | |
| 5 | 1 | 5 | 5 | 1 | 10 | 33 | |
| 6 | 1 | 5 | 5 | 1 | 10 | 13 | |
| 7 | 5 | 5 | >50 | 1 | 10 | 13 | |
| 8 | 1 | 10 | 5 | 1 | 20 | 33 | |
| Mean values | 1.6 | 4.6 | 6.4 | 1.6 | 12 | 20 | |
| Values given in literature (Ref.) | 0.02-29.6 (2, 18, 7 8, 9) | 0.02-5 (19, 17 3, 16) | 3-6 (19, 3, 16) | 1.5-6 (12) | 4 (20) | 1.5-10 (19, 3, 1, 2, 15, 18) | |

DISCUSSION

The information provided by the pharmaceutical industry (13) about the clinical effectiveness of the drugs and the recommended therapeutic doses for the treatment of *T. vaginalis* and *C. albicans* infections is summarized in Table 3. All of the tested chemotherapeutic agents except nystatin are reported to be effective against a *T. vaginalis* infection. The *in vitro* response of the freshly isolated trichomonads to the drugs shows however that only five of them, metronidazole, clotrimazole, chlorch-maldol, broxyquino-line and tinidazole are

trichomonocidal to the strains tested. Only one of the strains was sensitive to trichomycin while none was sensitive to natamycin. Numerous studies of the *in vitro* activity of the chemotherapeutic agents have been conducted by a number of investigators. It must be realized that the experimental conditions influence the results which has to be taken into consideration when data found in the literature are compared (3, 8, 14). For comparison reported MIC values for *T. vaginalis* have been included in Table 1. The values for metronidazole are in the range of our results although our MIC values are higher. Paredes & Hawkins (14) have also found natamycin

TABLE 3. The sensitivity of *T. vaginalis* and *C. albicans* to the Tested Therapeutic Agents and the Recommended Therapeutic Doses According to Pharmacokinetics (13)

| Chemotherapeutic agent | | <i>T. vaginalis</i> | <i>C. albicans</i> | Recommended therapeutic dose (mg/24 hours) | |
|------------------------|----------------|---------------------|--------------------|--|---------|
| | | | | Systemic | Local |
| Metronidazole | (Flagyl®) | + | | 400-600 | 500 |
| Clotrimazole | (Canesten®) | + | + | | 100 |
| Trichomycin | (Trichomycin®) | + | + | 150-300 | 150-300 |
| Natamycin | (Pimaricin®) | | + | 300-400 | 25 |
| Chlorch-maldol | (Steromax®) | + | + | | 200 |
| Broxyquino-line | (Starogyn®) | + | + | | 100 |
| Tinidazole | (Tungav®) | + | | 300-500 | |
| Polyridone-iodine | (Betadine®) | + | + | | 200 |
| Nystatin | (Nystatin®) | | + | 150 | 30 |

medium. The viability was checked after 48 hours after which the seeded media was transferred in 3 ml aliquots to small test tubes. Then 0.2 ml of a serial dilution of a drug was added. A standard tube without chemotherapeutics was always included. After 24 hours each tube was screened and the highest dilution of drug without any motile organisms was recorded as the minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC). The standard tube contained $3-8 \times 10^5$ viable organisms per ml when the tubes containing a serial dilution of the drugs were screened. Each strain was tested for sensitivity to seven chemotherapeutics. From the sample containing no motile trichomonads 0.2 ml was seeded to 3 ml fresh medium and the subculture was incubated for a further 48 hours for evaluation of the final results.

For determination of the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) for *C. albicans* an agar dilution technique was used. The diluted chemotherapeutics were mixed with melted 4% Sabouraud's glucose agar (Merck) and poured into sterile petri plates. The yeast suspensions were prepared in sterile physiologic saline from 24 hours slope cultures grown at 37° C. 0.1 ml of the yeast suspension containing about 1000-2000 cells per ml was transferred with a sterile pipette on the agar plate. Results were recorded after 48 hours at 37° C. The lowest concentration of the chemotherapeutic that completely inhibited growth was taken as the MIC.

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tration of DMP had no effect on the growth of any of the organisms. One strain was always tested simultaneously against the different chemotherapeutic agents. Nystatin was not tested for *T. vaginalis* and metronidazole and tinidazole were not tested for *C. albicans*.

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TABLE 1 Minimum Inhibitory Concentration (MIC) of Different Chemotherapeutic Agents for Freshly Isolated Strains of *T. vaginalis* as Determined According to Materials and Methods. Corresponding Values Reported in the Literature Are Given at the Bottom of the Table

| MIC. (µg/ml) | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|--------------------------|----------------------------|------------------------|
| Strain of <i>T. vaginalis</i> | Metronidazole (0.3-100) | Clotrimazole (5-666) | Trichomycin (10-666) | Natamycin (1-666) | Chlorchinaldol (1-66) | Broxyquinoline (10-500) | Tinidazole (0.1-10) |
| 1 | 1 | 666 | 300 | >666 | 50 | 400 | 2 |
| 2 | 25 | 333 | >666 | >666 | 15 | 500 | 5 |
| 3 | 15 | 333 | >666 | >666 | 50 | 400 | 0.3 |
| 4 | 5 | 200 | >666 | >666 | 50 | 200 | 10 |
| 5 | 5 | 200 | >666 | >666 | 50 | 100 | 2.5 |
| 6 | 2 | 50 | >666 | >666 | 5 | 200 | 2 |
| 7 | 5 | 50 | >666 | >666 | >66 | 500 | 2.5 |
| Mean Value | 8 | 760 | | | 37 | 330 | 3.5 |
| Values given in literature (Ref.) | 0.075-1.4 (11-14) 4-5 | 100 (18) | 10 (9) | 15-30 (16) (14) | | 40 (10) | 0.5-10 (4-5) |

NITROBLUE TETRAZOLIUM (NBT) REDUCTION BY BACTERIA EMPLOYED FOR RAPID DETERMINATION OF ANTIBIOTIC CONCENTRATIONS IN SERUM

TERESA URBAN and CONNIL JARSTRAND

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Urban, T. & Jarstrand, C. Nitroblue tetrazolium (NBT) reduction by bacteria employed for rapid determination of antibiotic concentrations in serum. Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B, 86: 159-164, 1978.

The ability of bacteria to reduce nitroblue tetrazolium (NBT) to formazan, and the inhibition of this process by antibiotics, have been utilized in a method to determine antibiotic concentrations in serum. *Escherichia coli* growing in the presence of increasing but subinhibitory concentrations of antibiotics, produced diminished amounts of formazan. This is photometrically quantified and the optical density obtained with the sample is compared with those obtained with known concentrations. Levels of aminoglycosides below 1 µg/ml can be measured in the presence of other antibiotics also and the assay can be carried out in three hours. Good correlation was obtained when 49 serum samples containing varying concentrations of vancomycin were tested simultaneously by the NBT assay and a disc diffusion method.

Key words: nitroblue tetrazolium, aminoglycosides, antibiotic concentration.

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Because of the toxicity of aminoglycoside antibiotics, assay methods rapid enough for the results to be available in time to decide the size and time of the next dose are called for—especially when an impaired kidney function may result in poisonous concentrations even with standard doses. Such methods have been envisaged (1-4, 9), but are generally connected with technical difficulties which make them cumbersome for routine use in small laboratories.

A photometric method for rapid assay of antibiotic levels in serum has now been developed by utilizing the ability of bacteria to reduce the almost colourless compound nitroblue tetrazolium (NBT) to dark blue formazan (3), and the ability of antibiotics to inhibit this reaction. Unlike other metabolic activities employed for this purpose, such

as urea (5) and glucose (8) splitting, this process can be curtailed promptly without interfering with the quantification of the metabolite, thus allowing measurement to be performed when the reaction system is at a steady state.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Procedure

Test organism. A clinical isolate of *Escherichia coli* was used, with an MIC for gentamicin and amikacin of 2 µg/ml. It is fairly sensitive to cephalosporins (MIC for cephalotin 15 µg/ml) but resistant to therapeutically attainable levels for benzylpenicillin, ampicillin, carbenicillin, cloxacillin, ticarclicin and clindamycin, as determined by a disc diffusion method (2). The multiple resistance of the strain is probably mediated by R factor. For this reason, the selective pressure must be minimal.

NITROBLUE TETRAZOLIUM (NBT) REDUCTION BY BACTERIA EMPLOYED FOR RAPID DETERMINATION OF ANTIBIOTIC CONCENTRATIONS IN SERUM

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MATERIALS AND METHODS

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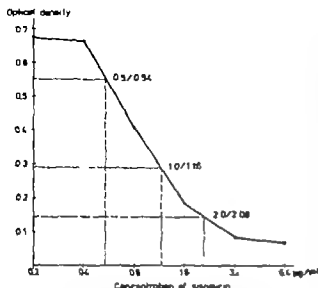


Fig 1 Dose-response curve for *E. coli* growing in various concentrations of sisomicin. Expected/obtained values (µg/ml) for artificial samples are presented.

ned in subcultures. This was done by placing paper discs, each containing one of the antibiotics, in a circle of 2 cm diameter on an agar plate. After overnight incubation the inoculum was taken from the growth in the centre of the

circle. The strain was also found to be resistant to the bactericidal action of human serum, according to O'Leary et al (6).

Antibiotics. Gentamicin and sisomicin, both supplied as sulphates by Schering Corp. Baltimore, USA, have been assayed.

Standard series. Two-fold dilutions of the two drugs, from 6.4 to 0.2 µg/ml, were prepared in pooled heat inactivated human normal serum.

Test samples. Artificial samples with 0.5, 1.0 and 2.0 µg/ml were made up in the same serum as above.

The assay system. An overnight culture (Nutrient Broth No 2, Oxoid) of the test strain was centrifuged, and the bacteria were resuspended in an equal volume of the same medium, enriched with 2 per cent glucose and adjusted to pH 7.9. Such a suspension will contain about 2×10^8 colony forming units (CFU) per ml, as determined by colony counts from serial dilutions. 0.3 ml of this suspension was dispensed into each of a suitable number of the test tubes. 0.5 ml of standard antibiotic solutions, or the same volume of the samples, was added to the tubes and the mixture was preincubated for 1½ h during agitation in a 37°C water bath. Thereafter 1 ml of 0.1 per cent NBT (BDH Chemical Ltd, Poole, England) in Hank's solution was added to each tube and incubation was continued for 45 min. after which the reaction was curtailed by the addition of 1 ml 0.5 M HCl. The tubes were then centrifuged at 1000 g

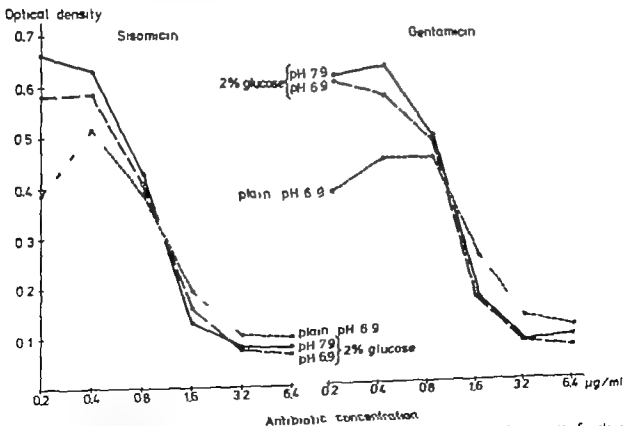


Fig 2 Effect of enrichment of the medium and pH change on NBT reduction by *E. coli* in the presence of various concentrations of sisomicin and gentamicin. Inoculum 2×10^8 CFU/ml.

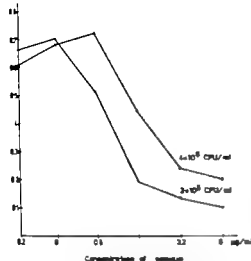


Fig 3 Effect of increased inoculum on NBT-reduction by *E. coli* in the presence of various concentrations of streptomycin

for 15 min, the supernatants were discarded and the pellets eluted with 3 ml dimethylsulphoxide (DMSO). The optical densities (OD) of the extracts were determined at 572 nm by a filter photometer (Vintatron Maxwell DCP).

Calculations: By comparing the OD obtained for the sample with the dose-response curve recorded with the standard series, the concentration of the antibiotic in the former was calculated graphically as shown in Fig 1.

Experiment 1

The procedure described was adopted after preparatory experiments arranged in order to establish optimum conditions for the reaction.

Media: Nutrient broth was used both plain and enriched with 2 per cent glucose, at its original pH of 6.9 or adjusted to pH 7.9. The ODs obtained with these media in the presence of different concentrations of gentamicin and streptomycin are given in Fig 2. Evidently the addition of glucose and the higher pH of 7.9 optimal for the action of aminoglycosides, favoured the NBT reduction as well as the inhibitory effect of the antibiotics and thus increased the OD range available for the measurements.

Inoculum: With the inoculum of 2×10^8 *E. coli*/ml used in the standard procedure, 3.2 µg/ml of streptomycin diminished the NBT reduction to minimum, while 0.4 µg/ml permitted maximum activity. When the inoculum was doubled, the NBT reduction was not significantly increased, but the levels of streptomycin needed for inhibition were also doubled as seen from Fig 3 leading to diminished sensitivity of the system. In some experiments, the volume of bacterial suspension was increased at the expense of the serum volume. The

standard curve then became steeper but the sensitivity of the test system was again diminished.

Pre-incubation: The differences between the amounts of formazan produced at the different concentrations of the antibiotic were evident already after pre-incubation for 1 h and were maximal after 1½ h. Further prolongation resulted in only a slight increase of the range, as seen from Fig. 4.

Reproducibility of the method

Ten artificial streptomycin serum samples containing 0.5, 1.0, 1.5, 2.0, 2.5, 3.0, 3.5, 4.0, 4.5 and 5.0 µg/ml were prepared. Samples below 2.0 µg/ml were analysed only undiluted, samples between 2.0 and 3.0 µg/ml undiluted and in dilution 1:2, and samples with more than 3.0 µg/ml undiluted and in dilutions 1:2 and 1:4. 0.5 ml aliquots of each sample and its dilutions were distributed into test tubes, frozen to -18°C and analysed according to the procedure described previously on 10 different days. Standard curves were prepared and kept in the same manner.

Influence of other antibiotics: To samples with 1.0 and 2.0 µg/ml of gentamicin were added other antibiotics in four or five different concentrations. Benzyl penicillin 25–400 IU/ml, ampicillin 3.125–100 µg/ml, carbenicillin 15.6–500 µg/ml, cloxacillin 2.5–40 µg/ml, Bacitracin 2.5–20 µg/ml and clindamycin 1.25–10 µg/ml. The artificial samples containing two antibiotics were assayed according to the procedure described previously.

Comparison by Disc Diffusion Assay

For comparison, 49 serum samples collected at Rikshögskoll Hospital from eleven patients treated with streptomycin and occasionally also with penicillin, were analysed simultaneously by the NBT assay and by a disc diffusion test, similarly a modification of the method described by Sabath and co-workers (7).

Optical density

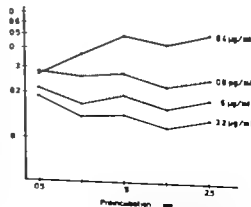


Fig 4 Effect of preincubation time on NBT-reduction by *E. coli* growing in the presence of various concentrations of streptomycin.

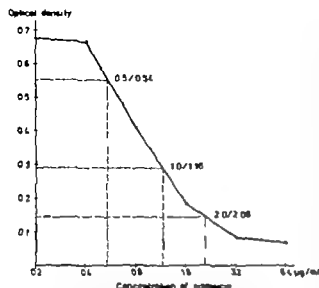


Fig. 1 Dose response curve for *E. coli* growing in various concentrations of sisomicin. Expected/obtained values (µg/ml) for artificial samples are presented.

ned in subcultures. This was done by placing paper discs, each containing one of the antibiotics, in a circle of 2 cm diameter on an agar plate. After overnight incubation the inoculum was taken from the growth in the centre of the

circle. The strain was also found to be resistant to the bactericidal action of human serum, according to Olling *et al.* (6).

Antibiotics. Gentamicin and sisomicin, both supplied as sulphates by Schering Corp. Baltimore, USA, have been assayed.

Standard series. Two-fold dilutions of the two drugs, from 6.4 to 0.2 µg/ml, were prepared in pooled heat inactivated human normal serum.

Test samples. Artificial samples with 0.5, 1.0 and 2.0 µg/ml were made up in the same serum as above.

The assay system. An overnight culture (Nutrient Broth No 2, Oxoid) of the test strain was centrifuged, and the bacteria were resuspended in an equal volume of the same medium, enriched with 2 per cent glucose and adjusted to pH 7.9. Such a suspension will contain about 2×10^8 colony forming units (CFU) per ml, as determined by colony counts from serial dilutions. 0.5 ml of this suspension was dispensed into each of a suitable number of the test tubes. 0.5 ml of standard antibiotic solutions, or the same volume of the samples, was added to the tubes and the mixture was preincubated for 1½ h during agitation in a 37°C water bath. Thereafter 1 ml of 0.1 per cent NBT (BDH Chemical Ltd, Poole, England) in Hank's solution was added to each tube and incubation was continued for 45 min, after which the reaction was curtailed by the addition of 1 ml 0.5 M HCl. The tubes were then centrifuged at 1000 g

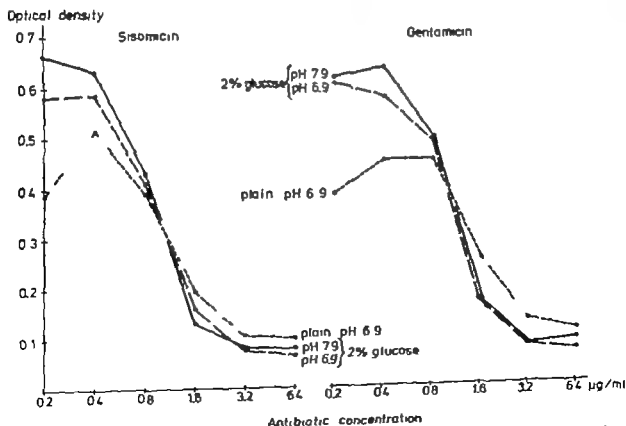


Fig. 2 Effect of enrichment of the medium and pH change on NBT-reduction by *E. coli* in the presence of various concentrations of sisomicin and gentamicin. Inoculum 2×10^8 CFU/ml.

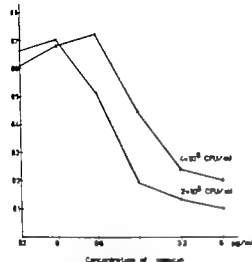


Fig. 3. Effect of increased inoculum on NBT-reduction by *E. coli* in the presence of various concentrations of streptomycin.

for 15 min, the supernatants were discarded and the pellets stained with 3 ml dimethylsulphoxide (DMSO). The optical densities (OD) of the extracts were determined at 572 nm by a filter photometer (Viscotron Manual DCP).

Calculation. By comparing the OD obtained for the sample with the dose-response curve recorded with the standard series, the concentration of the antibiotic in the former was calculated graphically as shown in Fig. 1.

Experimental

The procedure described was adopted after preparatory experiments arranged in order to establish optimum conditions for the reaction.

Media. Nutrient broth was used both plain and enriched with 2 per cent glucose, at its original pH of 6.9 or adjusted to pH 7.9. The ODs obtained with these media in the presence of different concentrations of gentamicin and streptomycin are given in Fig. 2. Evidently the addition of glucose and the higher pH of 7.9 optimal for the action of aminoglycosides, favoured the NBT reduction as well as the inhibitory effect of the antibiotics, and thus increased the OD range available for the measurements.

Inoculum. With the inoculum of 2×10^8 *E. coli*/ml used in the standard procedure, 3.2 µg/ml of streptomycin diminished the NBT reduction to a minimum, while 0.4 µg/ml permitted maximum activity. When the inoculum was doubled, the NBT reduction was not significantly increased, but the levels of streptomycin needed for inhibition were also doubled, as seen from Fig. 3 leading to diminished sensitivity of the system. In some experiments, the volume of bacterial suspension was increased at the expense of the serum volume. The

standard curve then became steeper but the sensitivity of the test system was again diminished.

Pre-incubation. The differences between the amounts of formazan produced at the different concentrations of the antibiotic were evident already after pre-incubation for 1 h and were maximal after 1½ h. Further prolongation resulted in only a slight increase of the range, as seen from Fig. 4.

Reproducibility of the method

Ten artificial streptomycin serum samples containing 0.5, 1.0, 1.5, 2.0, 2.5, 3.0, 3.5, 4.0, 4.5 and 5.0 µg/ml were prepared. Samples below 2.0 µg/ml were analysed only undiluted, samples between 2.0 and 3.0 µg/ml undiluted and in dilution 1:2, and samples with more than 3.0 µg/ml undiluted and in dilutions 1:2 and 1:4. 0.5 ml aliquots of each sample and its dilutions were distributed into ten tubes, frozen to -18°C and analysed according to the procedure described previously on 10 different days. Standard series were prepared and kept in the same manner.

Influence of other antibiotics. To samples with 1.0 and 2.0 µg/ml of gentamicin were added other antibiotics in four or five different concentrations: Benzyl penicillin 2.5–400 IU/ml, ampicillin 3.125–100 µg/ml, carbenicillin 15.6–500 µg/ml, cloxacillin 2.5–40 µg/ml, lincomycin 2.5–20 µg/ml and clindamycin 1.25–10 µg/ml. The artificial samples containing two antibiotics were assayed according to the procedure described previously.

Comparison by Disc Diffusion Assay

For comparison, 49 serum samples collected at Rostagstall Hospital from eleven patients treated with streptomycin and occasionally also with penicillin, were analysed simultaneously by the NBT assay and by a disc diffusion test, mainly a modification of the method described by Seibert and co-workers (7).

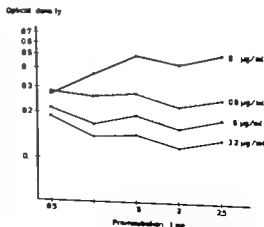


Fig. 4. Effect of preincubation time on NBT-reduction by *E. coli* growing in the presence of various concentrations of streptomycin.

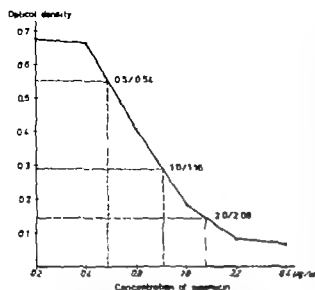


Fig. 1 Dose-response curve for *E. coli* growing in various concentrations of sisomicin. Expected/obtained values (pg/ml) for artificial samples are presented.

ned in subcultures. This was done by placing paper discs, each containing one of the antibiotics, in a circle of 2 cm diameter on an agar plate. After overnight incubation the inoculum was taken from the growth in the centre of the

circle. The strain was also found to be resistant to the bactericidal action of human serum, according to Odling *et al.* (6).

Antibiotics. Gentamicin and sisomicin, both supplied as sulphates by Schering Corp. Baltimore, USA, have been assayed.

Standard series. Two-fold dilutions of the two drugs, from 6.4 to 0.2 µg/ml, were prepared in pooled heat inactivated human normal serum.

Test samples. Artificial samples with 0.5, 1.0 and 2.0 µg/ml were made up in the same serum as above.

The assay system. An overnight culture (Nutrient Broth No. 2 Oxoid) of the test strain was centrifuged, and the bacteria were resuspended in an equal volume of the same medium, enriched with 2 per cent glucose and adjusted to pH 7.9. Such a suspension will contain about 2×10^8 colony forming units (CFU) per ml, as determined by colony counts from serial dilutions. 0.5 ml of this suspension was dispensed into each of a suitable number of the test tubes. 0.5 ml of standard antibiotic solutions, or the same volume of the samples, was added to the tubes and the mixture was preincubated for 1 1/2 h during agitation in a 37°C water bath. Thereafter 1 ml of 0.1 per cent NBT (BDH Chemical Ltd, Poole, England) in Hank's solution was added to each tube and incubation was continued for 45 min, after which the reaction was curtailed by the addition of 1 ml 0.5 M HCl. The tubes were then centrifuged at 1000 g

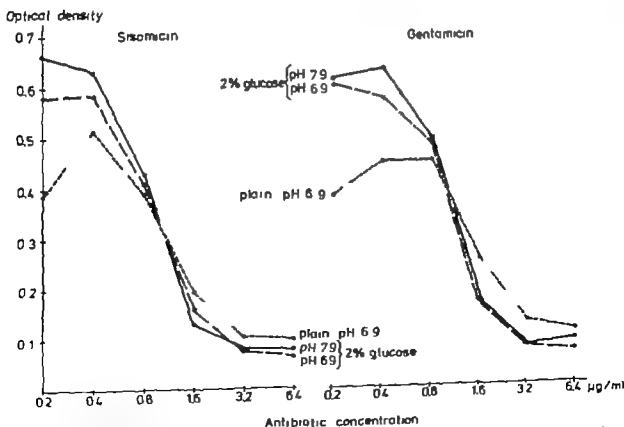


Fig. 2 Effect of enrichment of the medium and pH change on NBT-reduction by *E. coli* in the presence of various concentrations of sisomicin and gentamicin. Inoculum 2×10^8 CFU/ml.

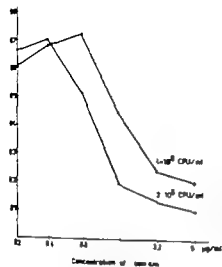


Fig 3 Effect of increased inoculum on NBT-reduction by *E. coli* in the presence of various concentrations of amoxycillin

for 15 min, the supernatants were discarded and the pellets decanted with 3 ml dimethylsulphoxide (DMSO). The optical densities (OD) of the supernatants were determined at 572 nm by a Glass photometer (Vintrom Manual DCP).

Calculation: By comparing the OD obtained for the sample with the dose-response curve recorded with the master series, the concentration of the antibiotic in the former was calculated graphically as shown in Fig. 1.

Experimental

The procedure described was adopted after preliminary experiments arranged in order to establish optimum conditions for the reaction.

Medium: Nutrient broth was used both plain and enriched with 2 per cent glucose, at its original pH of 6.9 or adjusted to pH 7.9. The ODs obtained with these media in the presence of different concentrations of penicillin and amoxycillin are given in Fig. 2. Evidently the addition of glucose and the higher pH of 7.9 optimal for the action of aminoglycosides, lowered the NBT reduction as well as the inhibitory effect of the antibiotics and thus increased the OD range available for the measurements.

Inoculum: With the inoculum of 2×10^8 *E. coli*/ml used in the standard procedure, 3.2 µg/ml of amoxycillin diminished the NBT reduction to a minimum, while 0.4 µg/ml permitted maximum activity. When the inoculum was doubled, the NBT reduction was not significantly increased, but the levels of inoculum needed for inhibition were also doubled, as seen from Fig. 3, leading to diminished accuracy of the system. In some experiments, the volume of bacterial suspension was as

standard curve then became steeper but the accuracy of the test system was again diminished.

Pre-incubation: The differences between the amounts of formazan produced at the different concentrations of the antibiotic were evident already after pre-incubation for 1 h and were maximal after 1 1/2 h. Further prolongation resulted in only a slight increase of the range, as seen from Fig. 4.

Reproducibility of the method

Ten artificial serum samples containing 0.5, 1.0, 1.5, 2.0, 2.5, 3.0, 3.5, 4.0, 4.5 and 5.0 µg/ml were prepared. Samples below 2.0 µg/ml were analysed only undiluted, samples between 2.0 and 3.0 µg/ml undiluted and in dilution 1:2, and samples with more than 3.0 µg/ml undiluted and in dilutions 1:2 and 1:4. 0.5 ml aliquots of each sample and its dilutions were distributed into ten tubes, frozen to -18°C and analysed according to the procedure described previously on 10 different days. Standard series were prepared and kept in the same manner.

Influence of other antibiotics: To samples with 1.0 and 2.0 µg/ml of gentamicin were added other antibiotics in four or five different concentrations: Bacitracin 1.5–400 IU/ml, ampicillin 3.125–100 µg/ml, carbenicillin 15.6–500 µg/ml, cloxacillin 7.5–40 µg/ml, kanamycin 2.5–20 µg/ml and clindamycin 1.25–10 µg/ml. The artificial samples containing two antibiotics were assayed according to the procedure described previously.

Comparison by Disc Diffusion Assay

For comparison, 49 serum samples collected at Rodeghiero Hospital from eleven patients treated with streptomycin and amoxycillin also with penicillin, were analysed simultaneously by the NBT assay and by a disc diffusion test, mainly a modification of the method described by Sahasr and co-workers (7).

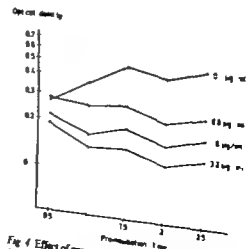


Fig 4 Effect of preincubation time on NBT-reduction by *E. coli* growing in the presence of various concentrations of amoxycillin

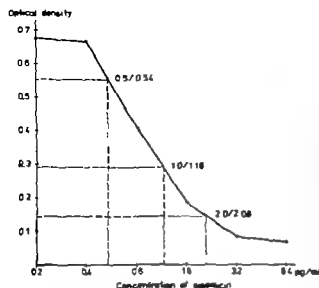


Fig 1 Dose-response curve for *E. coli* growing in various concentrations of sisomicin. Expected/obtained values ($\mu\text{g/ml}$) for artificial samples are presented

ned in subcultures. This was done by placing paper discs, each containing one of the antibiotics, in a circle of 2 cm diameter on an agar plate. After overnight incubation the inoculum was taken from the growth in the centre of the

circle. The strain was also found to be resistant to the bactericidal action of human serum, according to *Olley et al.* (6)

Antibiotics. Gentamicin and sisomicin, both supplied as sulphates by Schering Corp. Baltimore, USA, have been assayed.

Standard series. Two-fold dilutions of the two drugs, from 6.4 to 0.2 $\mu\text{g/ml}$, were prepared in pooled heat inactivated human normal serum.

Test samples. Artificial samples with 0.5, 1.0 and 2.0 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ were made up in the same serum as above.

The assay system. An overnight culture (Nutrient Broth No 2, Oxoid) of the test strain was centrifuged and the bacteria were resuspended in an equal volume of the same medium, enriched with 2 per cent glucose and adjusted to pH 7.9. Such a suspension will contain about 2×10^8 colony forming units (CFU) per ml, as determined by colony counts from serial dilutions. 0.5 ml of this suspension was dispensed into each of a suitable number of the test tubes. 0.5 ml of standard antibiotic solutions, or the same volume of the samples, was added to the tubes and the mixture was preincubated for 1½ h during agitation in a 37°C water bath. Thereafter 1 ml of 0.1 per cent NBT (BDH Chemical Ltd, Poole, England) in Hank's solution was added to each tube and incubation was continued for 45 min, after which the reaction was curtailed by the addition of 1 ml 0.5 M HCl. The tubes were then centrifuged at 1000 g

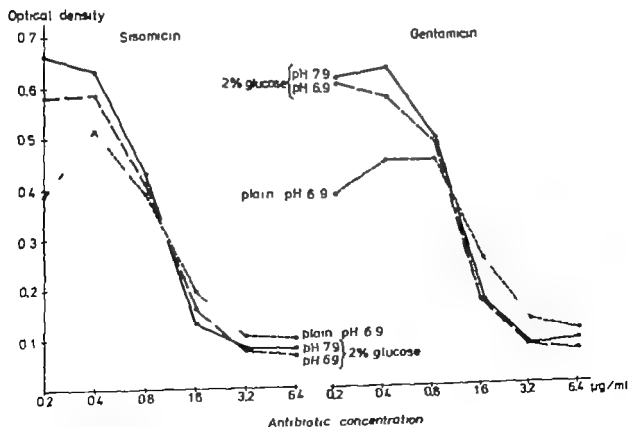


Fig 2 Effect of enrichment of the medium and pH change on NBT-reduction by *E. coli* in the presence of various concentrations of sisomicin and gentamicin. Inoculum 2×10^8 CFU/ml.

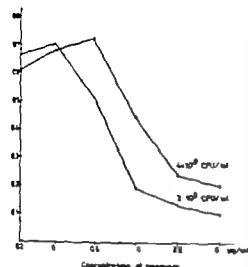


Fig 3 Effect of increased inoculum on NBT-reduction by *E. coli* in the presence of various concentrations of streptomycin

for 15 min, the supernatants were discarded and the pellets eluted with 3 ml dimethylsulphoxide (DMSO). The optical densities (OD) of the extracts were determined at 572 nm by a filter photometer (Vernon Spectra DCP).

Calculation. By comparing the OD obtained for the sample with the dose-response curve recorded with the standard series, the concentration of the antibiotic in the former was calculated graphically as shown in Fig. 1.

Experiment 1

The procedure described was adopted after preliminary experiments arranged in order to establish optimum conditions for the reaction.

Media. Nutrient broth was used both plain and enriched with 2 per cent glucose, at its original pH of 6.9 or adjusted to pH 7.9. The ODs obtained with these media in the presence of different concentrations of gentamicin and streptomycin are given in Fig. 2. Evidently the addition of glucose and the higher pH of 7.9 optimal for the action of aminoglycosides, favoured the NBT reduction as well as the inhibitory effect of the antibiotics, and thus increased the OD range available for the measurements.

Inoculum. With the inoculum of 2×10^8 *E. coli*/ml used as the standard procedure, 3.2 µg/ml of streptomycin diminished the NBT reduction to a minimum, while 0.4 µg/ml permitted maximum activity. When the inoculum was doubled, the NBT reduction was not significantly increased but the levels of streptomycin needed for inhibition were also doubled as seen from Fig. 3, leading to diminished sensitivity of the system. In some experiments, the volume of bacterial suspension was increased at the expense of the serum volume. The

standard curve then became steeper but the sensitivity of the test system was again diminished.

Pre-incubation. The differences between the amounts of formazan produced at the different concentrations of the antibiotic were evident already after pre-incubation for 1 h and were maximal after $1\frac{1}{2}$ h. Further prolongation resulted in only a slight increase of the range, as seen from Fig. 4.

Reproducibility of the method

Ten artificial aseptic serum samples containing 0.5, 1.0, 1.5, 2.0, 2.5, 3.0, 3.5, 4.0, 4.5 and 5.0 µg/ml were prepared. Samples below 2.0 µg/ml were analysed only undiluted, samples between 2.0 and 3.0 µg/ml undiluted and in dilution 1:2, and samples with more than 3.0 µg/ml undiluted and in dilutions 1:2 and 1:4. 0.5 ml aliquots of each sample and its dilutions were distributed into test tubes, frozen to -18°C and analysed according to the procedure described previously on 10 different days. Standard series were prepared and kept in the same manner.

Influence of other antibiotics. To samples with 1.0 and 2.0 µg/ml of gentamicin were added other antibiotics in four or five different concentrations: Benzyl penicillin 2.5–400 IU/ml, ampicillin 3.125–100 µg/ml, carbenicillin 15.6–500 µg/ml, cloxacillin 2.5–40 µg/ml, imipenem 2.5–20 µg/ml and clindamycin 1.25–10 µg/ml. The artificial samples containing two antibiotics were assayed according to the procedure described previously.

Comparison by Disc Diffusion Assay

For comparison, 49 serum samples collected at Rostagall Hospital from eleven patients treated with streptomycin and occasionally also with penicillin, were analysed simultaneously by the NBT assay and by a disc diffusion test, mainly a modification of the method described by Sabath and co-workers (7).

Optical density

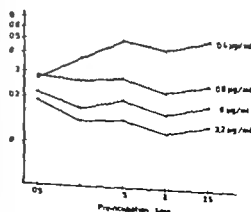


Fig 4 Effect of preincubation time on NBT-reduction by *E. coli* growing in the presence of various concentrations of streptomycin

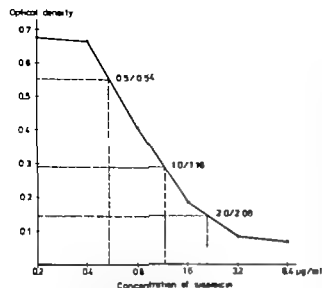


Fig 1 Dose-response curve for *E. coli* growing in various concentrations of sisomicin. Expected/obtained values (µg/ml) for artificial samples are presented.

ned in subcultures. This was done by placing paper discs, each containing one of the antibiotics, in a circle of 2 cm diameter on an agar plate. After overnight incubation the inoculum was taken from the growth in the centre of the

circle. The strain was also found to be resistant to the bactericidal action of human serum, according to *Olling et al* (6).

Antibiotics. Gentamicin and sisomicin, both supplied as sulphates by Schering Corp. Baltimore, USA, have been assayed.

Standard series. Two-fold dilutions of the two drugs, from 6.4 to 0.2 µg/ml, were prepared in pooled heat-inactivated human normal serum.

Test samples. Artificial samples with 0.5, 1.0 and 2.0 µg/ml were made up in the same serum as above.

The assay system. An overnight culture (Nutrient Broth No 2, Oxoid) of the test strain was centrifuged, and the bacteria were resuspended in an equal volume of the same medium, enriched with 2 per cent glucose and adjusted to pH 7.9. Such a suspension will contain about 2×10^8 colony forming units (CFU) per ml, as determined by colony counts from serial dilutions. 0.5 ml of this suspension was dispensed into each of a suitable number of the test tubes. 0.5 ml of standard antibiotic solutions, or the same volume of the samples, was added to the tubes and the mixture was preincubated for 1½ h during agitation in a 37°C water bath. Thereafter 1 ml of 0.1 per cent NBT (BDH Chemical Ltd, Poole, England) in Hank's solution was added to each tube and incubation was continued for 45 min, after which the reaction was curtailed by the addition of 1 ml 0.5 M HCl. The tubes were then centrifuged at 1000 g

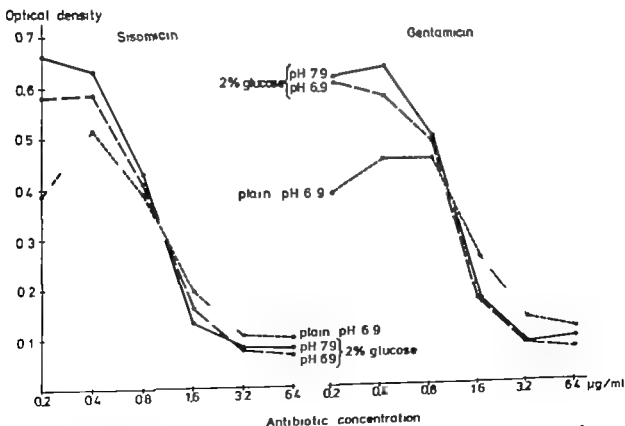


Fig 2 Effect of enrichment of the medium and pH change on NBT-reduction by *E. coli* in the presence of various concentrations of sisomicin and gentamicin. Inoculum 2×10^8 CFU/ml.

DISCUSSION

Different bacterial species and strains have different degrees of NBT activity (3). The *E. coli* strain chosen as test organism has a high NBT reducing capacity and provides a dose-response curve steep enough to permit a high accuracy of the method. It is also sufficiently sensitive to the drugs to be assayed to permit even low concentrations to be determined, viz. down to 0.4 $\mu\text{g/ml}$. On the other hand, it is resistant to other antibiotics likely to be present together with aminoglycosides. Cephalosporins, to which the test strain is susceptible, are not likely to be used together with aminoglycosides in our hospital. If such combinations are to be used, a cephalosporin resistant test strain must be employed. However as in all biological assay methods, other cytostatic drugs than antibiotics may be suspected of interfering with the reaction.

Samples of unpredictable concentrations must be assayed in two or three dilutions to make sure that some of them will fall within the measurable range of the method, but a serum volume of 1 ml will always be sufficient. As the test strain is resistant to the bactericidal action of human serum in the concentration (50 per cent) existing in the test and for the 2 h of incubation, no interference of serum factors is likely to take place.

When assays were performed by the NBT method and the disc diffusion test, both of which measure biologically active drugs, good correlation was obtained. The method has been used in connection with clinical evaluations of sisomicin and neilmicin. As compared to other assay methods, such as agar well, disc or cup diffusion tests, methods based on enzyme activities such as urea or glucose splitting, assays of split products from enzymatic decomposition or radio-immuno-sorbent assays, the method now described has some advantages. It is rapid and simple and does not require expensive equipment or specially trained personnel. Thus it is suitable for use in small laboratories.

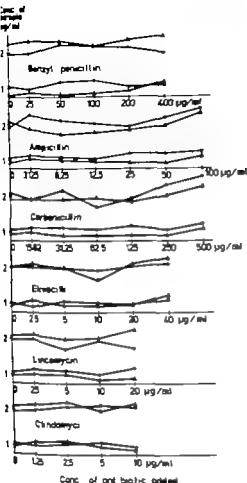


Fig 5 Assay values for artificial sisomicin (circles) and neilmicin (triangles) samples obtained in the presence of other antibiotics

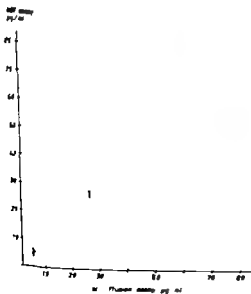


Fig 6 Comparison between the NET and disc diffusion assays for measurement of sisomicin in serum
 $r = 0.96$
 slope = 0.96
 y intercept = 0.43

TABLE 1 Assay Values for Artificial Sisomicin and Gentamicin Samples

| Antibiotic | Concentration prepared $\mu\text{g/ml}$ | Optical density | | | Concentration calculated $\mu\text{g/ml}$ |
|------------|---|-----------------|-------|------------|---|
| | | I | II | mean value | |
| Sisomicin | 2.0 | 0.148 | 0.148 | 0.146 | 2.03 |
| | 1.0 | 0.288 | 0.286 | 0.287 | 1.16 |
| | 0.5 | 0.551 | 0.552 | 0.552 | 0.54 |
| Gentamicin | 2.0 | 0.162 | 0.158 | 0.160 | 1.92 |
| | 1.0 | 0.386 | 0.374 | 0.380 | 0.92 |
| | 0.5 | 0.539 | 0.550 | 0.545 | 0.48 |

RESULTS

In order to illustrate the performance of the test and the calculation artificial serum samples with three different concentrations of sisomicin or gentamicin were prepared and assayed. The ODs obtained for the standard series and for the samples are presented in Fig. 1 also in Table 1 where the results of the determinations are given.

In order to test the reproducibility of the method one portion of each of the ten sisomicin samples containing ten different concentrations of the drug was analysed on 10 different days, with the results given in Table 2. The percentage standard deviations are about the same for all levels, with a mean value of 5.57 per cent, which expresses the reproducibility of the method.

The influence of other antibiotics present in the sample together with 1 and 2 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ of sisomicin or

gentamicin was tested in the experiments reported in Fig. 5. The six antibiotics were used in four or five different concentrations. When a sign test was performed for each of the six antibiotics, the values obtained with the additional antibiotic did not differ significantly from those obtained with only gentamicin or sisomicin and there was no correlation between the concentration of the added antibiotic and the value obtained for the gentamicin or sisomicin concentration.

The results obtained when the 49 serum specimens containing sisomicin were assayed by the disc diffusion test and by the NBT-procedure are presented in Fig. 6. The sisomicin concentrations covered a range of 0.4–8 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ serum. When linear regression analysis was performed, the correlation coefficient was 0.96 the slope value 0.78 and the y -intercept value 0.43. Thus good correlation between the two methods was noted.

TABLE 2 Reproducibility of the Method. Results of Sisomicin Assays Repeated on 10 Different Days on Artificial Serum Samples

| Expected value $\mu\text{g/ml}$ | Mean value of 10 experiments | Standard deviation | Standard deviation as percentage of the mean value |
|--|------------------------------|--------------------|--|
| 0.5 | 0.47 | 0.06 | 12.00 |
| 1.0 | 1.04 | 0.08 | 8.00 |
| 1.5 | 1.50 | 0.05 | 3.33 |
| 2.0 | 2.04 | 0.13 | 6.50 |
| 2.5 | 2.45 | 0.11 | 4.47 |
| 3.0 | 3.07 | 0.12 | 3.90 |
| 3.5 | 3.38 | 0.11 | 3.25 |
| 4.0 | 4.09 | 0.30 | 7.32 |
| 4.5 | 4.92 | 0.18 | 3.65 |
| 5.0 | 5.13 | 0.27 | 5.25 |
| Mean value for the percentage standard deviations. | | | 5.57 |

DISCUSSION

Different bacterial species and strains have different degrees of NBT activity (3). The *E. coli* strain chosen as test organism has a high NBT reducing capacity and provides a dose-response curve steep enough to permit a high accuracy of the method. It is also sufficiently sensitive to the drugs to be assayed to permit even low concentrations to be determined, viz. down to 0.4 $\mu\text{g/ml}$. On the other hand, it is resistant to other antibiotics likely to be present together with aminoglycosides. Cephalosporins, to which the test strain is susceptible, are not likely to be used together with aminoglycosides in our hospital. If such combinations are to be used, a cephalosporin resistant test strain must be employed. However as in all biological assay methods, other cytostatic drugs than antibiotics may be suspected of interfering with the reaction.

Samples of unpredictable concentrations must be assayed in two or three dilutions to make sure that some of them will fall within the measurable range of the method, but a serum volume of 1 ml will always be sufficient. As the test strain is resistant to the bactericidal action of human serum in the concentration (50 per cent) existing in the test and for the 2 h of incubation, no interference of serum factors is likely to take place.

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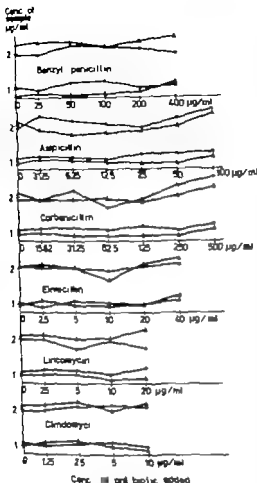


Fig 5 Assay values for artificial exoenzymes (circles) and gentamicin (triangles) samples obtained in the presence of other antibiotics

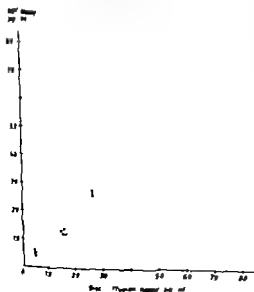


Fig 6 Comparison between the NBT and disc diffusion assays for measurement of streptomycin in serum
 $r = 0.96$
 slope = 0.78
 y intercept = 0.43

TABLE 1 Assay Values for Artificial Sisomicin and Gentamicin Samples

| Antibiotic | Concentration prepared $\mu\text{g/ml}$ | Optical density | | | Concentration calculated $\mu\text{g/ml}$ |
|------------|---|-----------------|-------|-----------|---|
| | | I | II | meanvalue | |
| Sisomicin | 2.0 | 0.148 | 0.148 | 0.146 | 2.08 |
| | 1.0 | 0.288 | 0.286 | 0.287 | 1.16 |
| | 0.5 | 0.551 | 0.552 | 0.552 | 0.54 |
| Gentamicin | 2.0 | 0.162 | 0.158 | 0.160 | 1.92 |
| | 1.0 | 0.386 | 0.374 | 0.380 | 0.92 |
| | 0.5 | 0.539 | 0.550 | 0.545 | 0.48 |

RESULTS

In order to illustrate the performance of the test and the calculation, artificial serum samples with three different concentrations of sisomicin or gentamicin were prepared and assayed. The ODs obtained for the standard series and for the samples are presented in Fig. 1 also in Table 1 where the results of the determinations are given.

In order to test the reproducibility of the method, one portion of each of the ten sisomicin samples containing ten different concentrations of the drug was analysed on 10 different days, with the results given in Table 2. The percentage standard deviations are about the same for all levels, with a mean value of 5.57 per cent, which expresses the reproducibility of the method.

The influence of other antibiotics present in the sample together with 1 and 2 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ of sisomicin or

gentamicin was tested in the experiments reported in Fig. 5. The six antibiotics were used in four or five different concentrations. When a sign test was performed for each of the six antibiotics, the values obtained with the additional antibiotic did not differ significantly from those obtained with only gentamicin or sisomicin, and there was no correlation between the concentration of the added antibiotic and the value obtained for the gentamicin or sisomicin concentration.

The results obtained when the 49 serum specimens containing sisomicin were assayed by the disc diffusion test and by the NBT-procedure are presented in Fig. 6. The sisomicin concentrations covered a range of 0.4–8 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ serum. When linear regression analysis was performed the correlation coefficient was 0.96, the slope value 0.78 and the y -intercept value 0.43. Thus good correlation between the two methods was noted.

TABLE 2 Reproducibility of the Method. Results of Sisomicin Assays Repeated on 10 Different Days on Artificial Serum Samples

| Expected value $\mu\text{g/ml}$ | Mean value of 10 experiments | Standard deviation | Standard deviation as percentage of the mean value |
|--|------------------------------|--------------------|--|
| 0.5 | 0.47 | 0.06 | 12.00 |
| 1.0 | 1.04 | 0.08 | 8.00 |
| 1.5 | 1.50 | 0.05 | 3.33 |
| 2.0 | 2.04 | 0.13 | 6.50 |
| 2.5 | 2.45 | 0.11 | 4.47 |
| 3.0 | 3.07 | 0.12 | 3.90 |
| 3.5 | 3.38 | 0.11 | 3.25 |
| 4.0 | 4.09 | 0.30 | 7.32 |
| 4.5 | 4.92 | 0.18 | 3.65 |
| 5.0 | 5.13 | 0.27 | 5.25 |
| Mean value for the percentage standard deviations. | | | 5.57 |

DISCUSSION

Different bacterial species and strains have different degrees of NBT activity (3). The *E. coli* strain chosen as test organism has a high NBT reducing capacity and provides a dose-response curve steep enough to permit a high accuracy of the method. It is also sufficiently sensitive to the drugs to be assayed to permit even low concentrations to be determined, viz. down to $0.4 \mu\text{g/ml}$. On the other hand, it is resistant to other antibiotics likely to be present together with aminoglycosides. Cephalosporins, to which the test strain is susceptible, are not likely to be used together with aminoglycosides in our hospital. If such combinations are to be used, a cephalosporin resistant test strain must be employed. However as in all biological assay methods, other cytostatic drugs than antibiotics may be suspected of interfering with the reaction.

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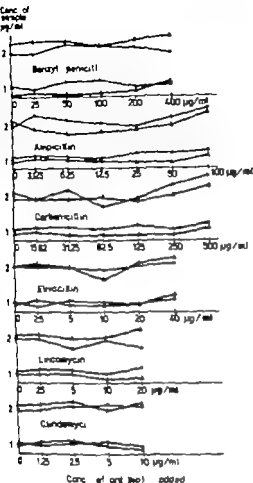


Fig 5 Assay values for artificial (circles) and genuine (triangles) samples obtained in the presence of other antibiotics

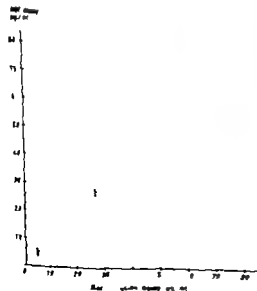


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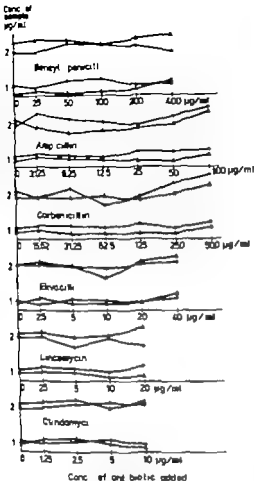
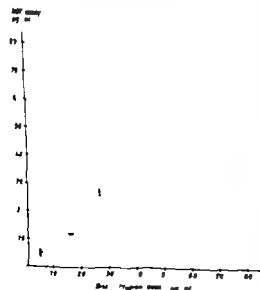


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BRIEF REPORT

OBSERVATIONS ON THE ULTRASTRUCTURE OF THE SPOROCYST AND THE INITIATION OF SPOROZONTE FORMATION IN *TOXOPLASMA GONDII*

D J P Ferguson^{1,2}, A Birch Andersen², J Chr Sum¹ and W M Hutchison¹

FAO/WHO Collaborating Centre for Research and Reference in Toxoplasmosis¹ and Department of Biophysics² Statens Serum Institut, Copenhagen, Denmark, and Department of Biology³ University of Strathclyde, Glasgow Scotland

Ferguson, D J P, Birch-Andersen, A, Sum, J Chr & Hutchison, W M. Observations on the ultrastructure of the sporocyst and the initiation of sporozoite formation in *Toxoplasma gondii*. Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B, 86 165-167 1978.

The ultrastructure of the immature sporocyst and the initiation of sporozoite formation in *T. gondii* was examined in oocysts which had been allowed to sporulate for 12 or 24 hours at 27°C. The sporocyst was ellipsoidal in shape and possessed a two layered sporocyst wall. A nucleus, with associated Golgi bodies, was situated at either end of the organism. The cytoplasm of the sporocyst also contained a number of polysaccharide granules, lipid globules, mitochondria and a few strands of rough endoplasmic reticulum. Sporozoite formation was initiated by the appearance of two dense plaques at either end of the organism in the vicinity of a nucleus, adjacent to the limiting membrane of the organism.

Key words: *Toxoplasma gondii*, initiation of sporozoite formation, sporocyst, ultrastructure.

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It is known that *Toxoplasma gondii* is a coenozoic parasite of the domestic cat (6). In this host the parasite gives rise to an *Isospora*-like oocyst which contains, after sporulation, two sporocysts each of which possesses four sporozoites. Until recently the ultrastructural changes occurring during the sporulation of the oocysts of the family Eimeriaceae have not been examined because of the resistance of the oocyst wall to the penetration of the fixing and embedding agents. However, a special preparative technique is now available, which allows the study of coenozoic oocyst sporulation at the subcellular level (1). To date, the only coenozoic studied using this technique has been a member of the genus *Eimeria*, *E. brunetti* (2, 3 & 4). To the best of our knowledge, no *Isospora*-like oocysts have been examined by this technique,

but in this note the ultrastructure of the sporocyst and the initiation of sporozoite formation in *T. gondii* will be described.

Materials and Methods

Oocysts were obtained from the faeces of specific pathogen free (SPF) cats which had been infected with the SS1/119 strain of *T. gondii*. The oocysts were concentrated and allowed to sporulate at 27°C for either 12 or 24 hours before processing for electron microscopy. For this purpose the technique used was similar to that described previously for the oocysts of *E. brunetti* (1).

Results

In the material which has sporulated for 12 or 24 hours it is possible to find oocysts which had reached the early sporocyst stage of development. At this stage the

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plaques at either end of the organism in the vicinity of a nucleus, adjacent to the limiting membrane of
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parasite of the domestic cat (6). In this host the parasite
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fixing and embedding agents. However, special pre-
parative techniques are now available, which allows the
study of coccidian oocyst sporulation at the subcellular
level (1). To date, the only coccidian studied using this
technique has been a member of the genus *Eimeria*, *E.
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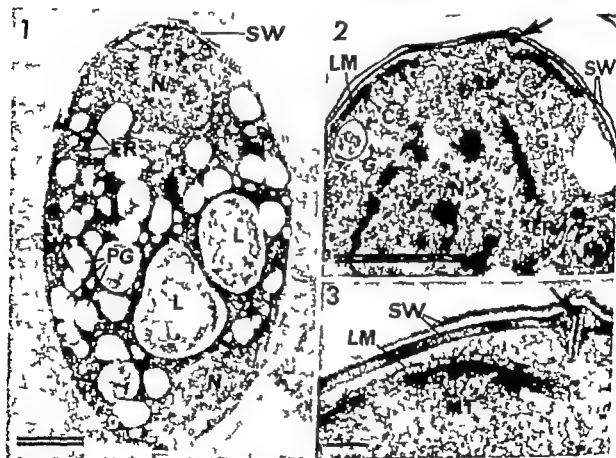
cytoplasmic mass is ellipsoidal in shape and is enclosed by a unit membrane; external to this is the sporocyst wall. The sporocyst wall comprises a thin outer layer and an inner layer 40–45 nm thick consisting of four curved plates (Figs 2 & 3). The cytoplasmic mass possesses two nuclei situated at opposite ends of the organism. Golgi bodies are found adjacent to the nuclei and the cytoplasm also contains a number of polysaccharide granules, lipid globules, mitochondria and a few strands of rough endoplasmic reticulum (Figs 1 & 2).

The first indication of sporozoite formation is the appearance of two dense plaques at either end of the organism. These plaques are always observed in the region of a nucleus and adjacent to the limiting

membrane of the organism (Fig. 2). A conoid is present in the central part of the plaques (Fig. 2). At higher magnification the plaques are found to consist of two closely applied unit membranes with underlying microtubules (Fig. 3) and they thus represent the anlage of the inner complex of the pellicle of each of the sporozoites.

Discussion

The structure of the two layered sporocyst wall of *T. gondii* with the inner layer consisting of four separate plates is similar to that reported for *Isospora* crab (8) and *I. endocaulis* (9). The appearance and distribution of the intracytoplasmic organelles of the early sporocyst



Figures 1–3 are micrographs of early sporocysts of *T. gondii* observed within oocysts which had sporulated for either 12 or 24 hours at 27°C. A single bar (—) on a micrograph represents 100 nm and a double bar (=) represents 1 µm.

Fig. 1 A longitudinal section through an early sporocyst in which the sporocyst wall (SW) is visible. A nucleus (N) is present at either end of the organism. In addition, the cytoplasm contains a number of polysaccharide granules (PG), lipid globules (L) and some rough endoplasmic reticulum (ER). $\times 15\,000$

Fig. 2 A section through one end of a sporocyst showing the two dense plaques (small arrows) close to the limiting membrane (LM) in the region of a nucleus (N). Note the presence of a conoid (C) in the centre of one plaque. The sporocyst wall (SW) and a junction between two of the plates constituting its inner layer can be seen (large arrow). Golgi bodies (G), a mitochondrion (M) and some rough endoplasmic reticulum (ER) are also visible. $\times 30\,000$

Fig. 3 A higher magnification through the region of a plaque. The plaque can be seen to consist of two closely applied unit membranes (small arrows) with underlying microtubules (MT) situated adjacent to the limiting membrane (LM). The two layered sporocyst wall (SW) is visible and a junction region between two plates of the inner layer is also illustrated (large arrow). $\times 90\,000$

of *T. gondii* is similar to that reported for the early sporocyst of *Sarcocystis tenella* (7), although a somewhat later cytoplasmic preservation is obtained using the present technique. The sporocyst of *T. gondii*, however, lacks both the crystalloid body observed in *S. tenella* (7) and the dense bodies observed in *E. bruxelli* (2 & 4).

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The work was supported by grants from the World Health Organization, Geneva, the Wellcome Trust, the Danish Medical Research Council, the W. H. Ross Foundation, and the British Council.

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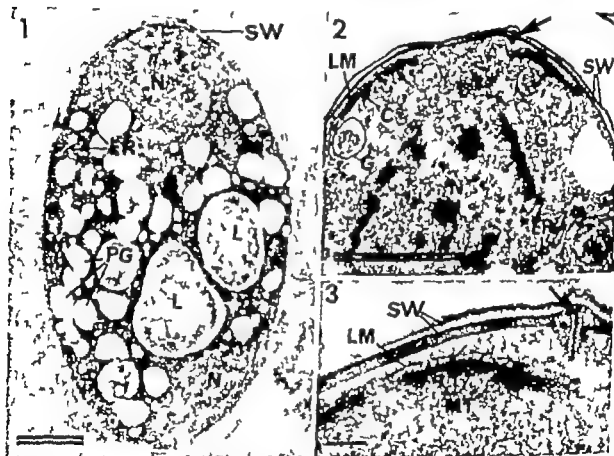
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Discussion

The structure of the two layered sporocyst wall of *T. gondii* with the inner layer consisting of four separate plates is similar to that reported for *Isospora* oocysts (11) and *I. endocallimici* (9). The appearance and distribution of the intracytoplasmic organelles of the early sporocyst



Figures 1–3 are micrographs of early sporocysts of *T. gondii* observed within oocysts which had sporulated for either 12 or 24 hours at 27°C. A single bar (—) on a micrograph represents 100 nm and a double bar (=) represents 1 µm.

Fig. 1 A longitudinal section through an early sporocyst in which the sporocyst wall (SW) is visible. A nucleus (N) is present at either end of the organism. In addition, the cytoplasm contains a number of polysaccharide granules (PG), lipid globules (L) and some rough endoplasmic reticulum (ER). $\times 15\,000$.

Fig. 2 A section through one end of a sporocyst showing the two dense plaques (small arrows) close to the limiting membrane (LM) in the region of a nucleus (N). Note the presence of a conoid (C) in the centre of one plaque. The sporocyst wall (SW) and a junction between two of the plates constituting its inner layer can be seen (large arrow). Golgi bodies (G), a mitochondrion (M) and some rough endoplasmic reticulum (ER) are also visible. $\times 20\,000$.

Fig. 3 A higher magnification through the region of a plaque. The plaque can be seen to consist of two closely applied unit membranes (small arrows) with underlying microtubules (MT) situated adjacent to the limiting membrane (LM). The two layered sporocyst wall (SW) is visible and a junction region between two plates of the inner layer is also illustrated (large arrow). $\times 90\,000$.

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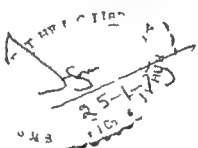
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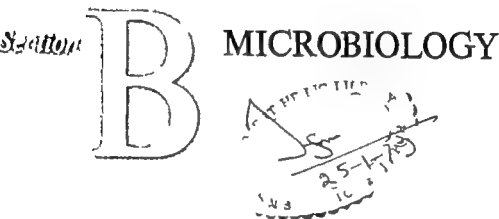
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ANTIGENIC CHARACTERISTICS OF *MORAXELLA NONLIQUEFACIENS* FIMBRIAE IN DOUBLE IMMUNODIFFUSION

LEIF ODDVAR FRØHOLM

Methodology Department, National Institute of Public Health, Oslo, Norway

Frøholm, L. □ Antigenic characteristics of *Moraxella nonliquefaciens* fimbriae in double immunodiffusion. Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B, 86: 169-178, 1978.

Rabbit antisera against purified fimbriae (pfl) from *Moraxella nonliquefaciens* detected three fimbrial antigenic components, one or two of which appeared to be present in other fimbriated strains of *M. nonliquefaciens* and the closely related *M. bovis*. Maximal precipitation with the antisera required some denaturation of the antigen. Ultrasonication, repeated freeze-thawing, heating, and agents like KBr, NaSCN and urea were effective in liberating the antigen in diffusible forms. The morphology of the fimbriae was altered by heat treatment in 1 M KBr.

Key words: Fimbriae, pfl, double immunodiffusion; protein antigen denaturation, *Moraxella nonliquefaciens*.

L. O. Frøholm, Methodology Department, National Institute of Public Health, Gellertveien 75 Postboks 440 Oslo 1 Norway.

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Bacterial fimbriae were identified by Daguid *et al.* in 1955 (12). Bruton was the first to purify fimbriae from *Escherichia coli* for biochemical studies, and he proposed the synonym *apilus* (9). Fimbriae have also been purified from other species (17, 27, 29, 36), including *Moraxella nonliquefaciens* (16), and from *E. coli* strains (1, 24, 30, 35).

Fimbriae are thin, filamentous bacterial appendages (28). Because of their large size and occasional tendency to aggregate in the native state, they might have difficulty in penetrating the agarose gel. However, immunodiffusion studies of fimbriae from various species have been reported (10, 17, 24, 25, 26, 27, 29, 35).

The present report describes mainly the antigenic properties of fimbriae from a strain of *M. nonliquefaciens* studied by double immunodiffusion (Ouchterlony).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Microorganisms, antigen labelling and cultivation. Purified fimbrial antigens used for immunization was prepared exclusively from *M. nonliquefaciens* NCTC 7784 SC-c, which is richly fimbriated (14) and highly competent in genetic transformation (3). SC or flm indicate fimbriated variants, whereas N indicates a low- or non-fimbriated one. The following strains were used as sources of whole-cell antigens in immunodiffusion experiments: *M. nonliquefaciens* 7784 SC-c, 3067/66 N-a and SC-a (4, 6), and 4663/62 SC-a (5, 6); *M. bovis* 4 SC-a (5, 6), and ATCC 10900 flm; *M. atlantiae* A1922, flm, fimbriated variant (8), here designated A1922 flm; *Klebsiella kligae* (22, 23) 4177/66 SC-a (6); and *Neisseria elongate* subsp. *gibbula* 6171/75 SC-a (7). As explained below, several subunit antigens of strain 7784 SC-c, crude antigens, CA, CA₂ and CA₃, purified antigens PA1, PA2, PA2_α and PA2_γ were used and often appear without strain designation. Antigens were also prepared from strain 3067/66 N-a

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Fimbrial protein absorption. Fimbrial protein immunosorbent was prepared from antigens PA2 and CA from *M. nonliquefaciens* T784 SC-c, fractionated on a preparative scale (13-34) by sodium dodecyl sulphate (SDS) polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (16). After fraction and staining of the gel, the fimbrial protein band and, from a control gel, a region containing no protein band, were cut out. The gel pieces were sliced into 1 mm segments and further fixed in 0.1 per cent glutaraldehyde in 0.1 M sodium phosphate buffer, pH 7.0, for two h at room temperature with three changes of fixative. This was followed by treatment for one h with 0.1 M glycine buffer, pH 8, with two changes. After dilution with five volumes of distilled water, small aliquots of antiserum were absorbed with the gel slices, first for 60 min at room temperature and then overnight at 4°C. After the gel pieces had been washed with distilled water, the diluted sera were lyophilized. The absorption was repeated once. In addition two absorptions with PA2cx antigen were performed. One PA2cx lot or TA buffer, pH 8, was heated at 100°C for 120 min. The coagulated material was washed once in buffer by centrifugation before use. The other PA2cx lot was used untreated in buffer and fimbriae were recovered by high speed centrifugation after the incubation, as above.

Electron microscopy. Negative staining was carried out with 0.8 per cent (w/v) sodium citrate-phosphate (CST), pH 7, as described previously (5-14). EBst treated antigens and controls were diluted 100-fold with distilled water

and centrifuged at $192,000 \times g$ for 60 min in the Spinco SW 50.1 rotor. The sediments were resuspended in the remnants of liquid after careful removal of supernatant. This suspension was added to a grid, left for one min, and removed before staining briefly.

Chemicals. The chemicals used were of analytical grade from various sources. The human serum pool was from Behringwerke AG and the human plasma pool was provided by this Institute.

RESULTS

Preparation and morphology of fimbrial antigens. The amount of cellular protein obtained from *M. nonliquefaciens* T784 SC-c (50 blood agar plates) was about 90 mg. The average yields in terms of protein were 5.1 per cent for crude antigen (CA, CAcx), 2.7 per cent for purified antigen 2 (PA2, PA2cx) and 1.7 per cent for PA1. CAcy and PA2cy yields were lower. By SDS polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis, PA1 and PA2 showed mainly one protein band with an apparent molecular weight of 17,000. Some PA2cx and PA2cy preparations were virtually pure by this method and allowed amino acid sequence determination for 49 steps from the N-terminal end (16).

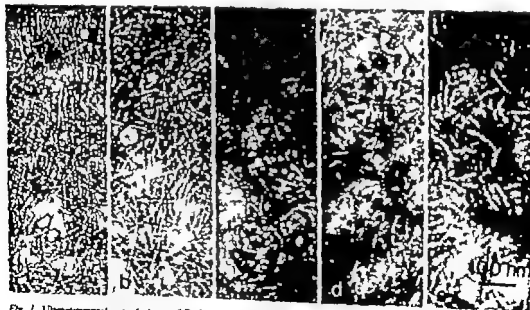


Fig. 1. Ultrastructural morphology of fimbrial antigens by negative staining. Purified antigen 1 (PA1) in Fig. 1a, purified antigen 2 (PA2) in Fig. 1b, and crude antigen (CA) in Fig. 1c. Non-fimbrial structures are marked with arrows. PA1 and PA2 were supplemented by 1 and 2 per cent formaldehyde (w/v), respectively, one day before sampling for electron microscopy. A fresh PA2cx antigen was fixed with EBst and divided into aliquots, one was treated by (freeze-drying 10 times (Fig. 1d) and the other was heated at 75°C for 20 min (Fig. 1e). The latter preparations were diluted and ultracentrifuged before negative staining. Arrowheads in Fig. 1c indicate a single fimbria. 100,000 \times .

and SC-a, CACx and PA2x and the strain/variant is always identical.

The bacteria were grown either on blood agar plates (5) or on Yeast Extract enriched Mueller Hinton agar plates, referred to as Mueller Hinton plates (14).

Fimbrial antigen preparations. A fimbrial suspension was prepared by harvesting the bacteria, homogenizing them and removing whole cells by differential centrifugation. The combined supernatant fraction described previously (14) was used either for the preparation of purified antigens (see below) or was centrifuged at $80\,000 \times g$ for 60 min (Spinco rotor 40) in the cold. **Crude fimbrial antigen, CA,** was obtained by suspending the pellet to 1/10 of the volume used for harvesting, in 0.01 M tris HCl, pH 8.0 containing 0.01 M NaN₃ (TA buffer pH 8). The preparation was used immediately or frozen at -25°C until use. A control antigen (CACx) from bacteria grown on Mueller Hinton plates was prepared in a similar manner to exclude the possibility of blood components contaminating the fimbriae. A second control antigen (CACY), also from Mueller Hinton grown bacteria, was further purified from media components by sedimenting the bacteria at $2\,000 \times g$ and washing them once. These supernatants were discarded. Homogenization and subsequent fractionation of the homogenates were then carried out as for CA and CACx. Purified fimbrial antigens (PA1 and PA2). To obtain PA1 the combined supernatants (see above) were first rehomogenized and then centrifuged at $2\,000 \times g$ for 30 min. Fimbriae were removed from this last supernatant by precipitation with half a volume of cold methanol prechilled to -70°C as described by Goodheart *et al.* (18). After centrifugation at $12\,000 \times g$ for 15 min the precipitated fimbriae were extracted by homogenization in TA buffer pH 7.5 at one half the volume used for harvesting and recentrifuged. The sediment was washed once by homogenization in 1/20 volume TA buffer pH 7.5 before dialysis and MgCl₂ precipitation of the extract by the method of Buchanan *et al.* (11). A similar antigen, PA2, was made by directly precipitating the combined supernatants with methanol (see above) and dialyzing the TA buffer pH 7.5 extract, first against distilled water for 4 h and then against 0.1 M MgCl₂ containing 0.01 M NaN₃ for 16 h. Both PA1 and PA2 were then pelleted by centrifugation at $80\,000 \times g$ for 60 min, suspended in 1/25 volume TA buffer pH 8 and used immediately or kept frozen at -25°C . Control antigens PA2cx and PA2cy were made from extracts of cells grown on Mueller Hinton plates as described for the crude antigens CACx and CACY followed by the procedure for PA2.

Whole-cell antigens. Bacteria grown for 16 to 24 h (exceptionally 48 h) on blood agar plates or on Mueller Hinton plates were harvested with a platinum loop and suspended in TA buffer pH 7.5 at a cell-protein concentration of approximately 40 mg/ml. The bacterial suspension was mixed by swirling on a Vortex Jr mixer and kept frozen. These antigens were occasionally used in this form, but were usually treated as described below.

Agar plate antigens. Dry samples of Mueller Hinton Broth (Difco), Yeast Extract (Difco), and Tryptose Blood

Agar Base (Oxoid) were extracted individually with phosphate buffered saline (PBS) (14), 50 ml/3 g, at room temperature for 60 min and centrifuged or glass-wool-filtered. The soluble material was dialyzed against distilled water before lyophilization. For immunodiffusion, the residue was suspended in 0.8 ml PBS. Blood agar medium (complete) was homogenized in 30 ml PBS per plate and centrifuged, and the supernatant was dialyzed against water before lyophilization. The residue was dissolved in 1/20 of the original volume of PBS, giving the blood agar extract.

Treatment of antigens. When not used untreated small amounts of the fimbrial and whole-cell antigen preparations in corked 6 x 50 mm glass tubes were subjected to physical and chemical denaturing agents. An equal volume of TA buffer pH 7.5 or one of the different chemicals (see below) was added. Physical conditions used were freeze-thawing (dry ice/acetone and 20°C water) and temperatures of 0°C , and 75°C for 20 min, and 100°C for 120 min. Sonication was performed with a 1 ml volume in a 5 ml plastic tube for 30 s under ice cooling, and with a microtip probe (Model B-12 Sonifier 20 KHz, at 10 W output energy Branson, Danbury Conn.). The following chemicals were tested: 1 M KBr in TA buffer pH 7.5; 3 M NaSCN in 0.01 M sodium phosphate buffer pH 6.5; and 8 N urea in distilled water freshly prepared.

Preparation of antisera PA1 from *M. nonliquefaciens* 7784 SC-c at 1 mg protein/ml was treated with one per cent formaldehyde overnight at 4°C before it was mixed thoroughly with an equal volume of incomplete Freund's Adjuvant (Difco) and injected intracutaneously into three rabbits (Nos. 1, 3, 5). The rabbits received five injections (25 µg (protein) formalized antigen/kg body weight) at two-week intervals. Thereafter the interval was increased to six weeks (19) with a total of eight injections. Serum C was collected eight days after the fifth injection, D eight days after the sixth, E eight days after the seventh, F nine days after and H five weeks after the eighth injection. The number before the serum designation in the following indicates the number of the rabbit immunized. To remove material precipitating non-specifically near the antiserum well, the rabbit sera were pretreated with Acrocell 380 (Degussa) (33).

Protein determination. The method of Schaffner & Weissmann was used for protein determination (31). The reference protein was bovine serum albumin (fraction V Armour Pharmaceutical).

Double immunodiffusion. One per cent A-45 agarose (L'Industrie Biologique Française A.A.R.L.) in PBS containing 0.0001 M merthiolate, 10 ml per 9 cm Petri dish, was used. The wells were usually 2.5 mm in diameter but 4 mm wells were also used occasionally. The plates were incubated for from one to four days at 33°C in a moisture chamber though most precipitates were visible within four to six h. Unstained plates were photographed by dark field illumination. The plates were afterwards rinsed thoroughly with PBS overnight, treated with 0.2 per cent (w/v) tannic acid in distilled water for about 10 min (32) to intensify weak precipitates, and then studied again.

Fimbrial protein absorptions. Fimbrial protein immunosorbent was prepared from antigens PA2 and CA from *M. morganellae* 7784 SC-c, fractionated on a preparative scale (13-34) by sodium dodecyl sulphate (SDS) polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (16). After fixation and staining of the gel, the fimbrial protein band and, from a control gel, a region containing no protein band, were cut out. The gel pieces were placed into 1 mm segments and further fixed in 0.1 per cent glutaraldehyde in 0.1 M sodium phosphate buffer pH 7.0 for two h at room temperature with three changes of fixative. This was followed by treatment for one h with 0.1 M glycine buffer pH 8 with two changes. After fixation with five volumes of distilled water small aliquots of antisera were absorbed with the gel slices, first for 60 min at room temperature and then overnight at 4°C. After the gel pieces had been washed with distilled water the diluted sera were hypotized. The absorption was repeated once. In addition two absorptions with PA2ca antigen were performed. One PA2ca lot in TA buffer pH 8 was heated at 100°C for 120 min. The coagulated material was washed once in buffer by centrifugation before use. The other PA2ca lot was used untreated in buffer and fimbriae were removed by high speed centrifugation after the incubation, as above.

Electron microscopy. Negative staining was carried out with 0.8 per cent (w/v) sodium selenotungstate (SST), pH 7 as described previously (5-14). KBr treated antigens and controls were diluted 100-fold with distilled water

and centrifuged at $191,000 \times g$ for 60 min in the Spinco SW 50.1 rotor. The sediments were suspended in the remnants of liquid after careful removal of supernatant. This suspension was added to a grid, left for one min, and removed before staining briefly.

Chemicals. The chemicals used were of analytical grade from various sources. The human serum pool was from Behringwerke AG, and the human plasma pool was provided by this institute.

RESULTS

Preparation and morphology of fimbrial antigens

The amount of cellular protein obtained from *M. morganellae* 7784 SC-c (50 blood agar plates) was about 90 mg. The average yields in terms of proteins were 5.1 per cent for crude antigen (CA, CAca), 2.7 per cent for purified antigen 2 (PA2, PA2ca) and 1.7 per cent for PA1 CAcy and PA2cy yields were lower. By SDS polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis, PA1 and PA2 showed mainly one protein band with an apparent molecular weight of 17 000. Some PA2ca and PA2cy preparations were virtually pure by this method and allowed amino acid sequence determination for 49 steps from the N-terminal and (16).

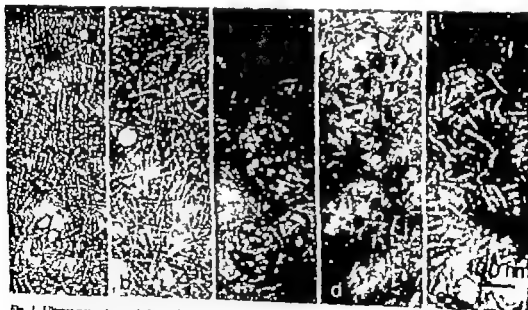


Fig. 1. Ultrastructural morphology of fimbrial antigens by negative staining. Purified antigen 1 (PA1) in Fig. 1a, purified antigen 2 (PA2) in Fig. 1b, and crude antigen (CA) in Fig. 1c. Non-fimbrial structures are marked with arrows. PA1 and PA2 were supplemented by 1 and 2 per cent formaldehyde (w/v), respectively one day before sampling for electron microscopy. A fresh PA2ca antigen was mixed with KBr and divided into aliquots: one was treated by freeze-thawing 10 times (Fig. 1d), and the other was heated at 75°C for 20 min (Fig. 1e). The latter preparations were diluted and ultracentrifuged before negative staining. Arrowheads in Fig. 1e indicate a single fimbria. 100 000 \times .

Electron microscopy of formalin-treated PA1 antigen which (in several lots) was the only antigen used for immunization, shows a meshwork of fimbrial threads lying straight or slightly curved (Fig. 1a). The diameter of the fimbriae ranges from 6 to 8 nm when filaments running in parallel are measured (4). The width of the light zone is about 4 nm. Very few ends can be seen, but a few rounded structures of various sizes, presumably derived from the outer membrane (cf. ref. 15) are evident (arrows). The PA2 preparation shown in Fig. 1b seems to resemble PA1 in all respects. The crude antigen (CA) definitely contains more of the round structures (Fig. 1c) and is mixed with some whole cells. This contamination may be reflected in the yields (see above).

PA2cx was also prepared from *M. nonliquefaciens* 3067/66 SC-a and gave 0.53 per cent of rather impure fimbriae as compared to similar 7784 SC-c preparations. When the same method was applied to the N-a variant of 3067/66 the yield was 0.32 per cent, and subcellular material with no fimbriae was seen by electron microscopy. This latter antigen was used as a fimbria free control antigen in some tests.

Double Immunodiffusion with *M. nonliquefaciens* 7784 SC-c antigen. The antibody response to formalinized PA1 was studied by immunodiffusion. The preimmune sera showed no activity to purified fimbriae, but after immunization three precipitates were detected (Fig. 2a and b top and lower right). With all rabbit antisera, both PA1 and PA2 gave rise to two main precipitate lines, I and II and the 1H antiserum showed a third less distinct line, III, marked with an arrow on the antiserum side of the precipitate labelled II. Immunoprecipitates were also demonstrated with CA preparations, and there seemed to be fusion of CA lines with PA1 and PA2 lines as seen on Fig. 2a, b and c. Faint precipitates were found with the untreated whole-cell extract of *M. nonliquefaciens* 7784 SC-c, the source of the fimbrial antigen used for immunization. Also antigen prepared from cells grown on Mueller Hinton plates and washed (PA2cy) gave a similar response as PA2. The antisera showed no activity with the blood agar extract (BAE), yeast extract (YE) Mueller Hinton broth extract (MH), tryptose blood agar base (TBA) human serum (HS), human plasma (HP) or the untreated whole-cell antigen from a distantly related, fimbriated bacterium (6171

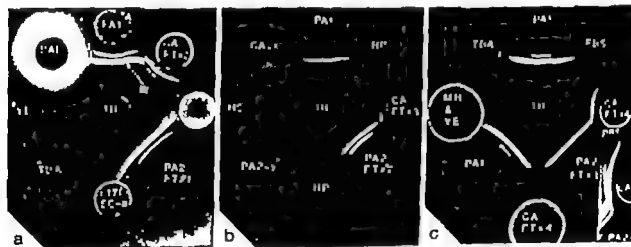


Fig. 2. Specificity testing of anti-fimbrial antibody. The 1H antiserum was used. Fig. 2a shows the results with blood agar plate extract (BAE), yeast extract (YE) and tryptose blood agar base (TBA), compared with purified antigen 1 (PA1) and 2 (PA2), crude antigen (CA) and whole-cell antigens in TA buffer pH 7.5 freeze-thawed four times, of *Moraxella nonliquefaciens* 7784 SC-c and of *Neisseria elongata* subsp. *glycolytica* 6171/75 SC-a. All antigens, except PA1 and PA2, were filled into the wells several times. In Fig. 2b human plasma (HP), and a human serum pool (HS) are compared (at a later date) with the same PA1, PA2, and CA antigens as above, as well as with control antigens, CAcx and PA2cy. Fig. 2c also shows repeated experiments with the same PA2 and CA antigens, and, in addition, TBA and a mixture of YE and Mueller Hinton broth extract (MH). Larger wells were used for this mixture and for one experiment with an increased amount of CA. The latter well was placed more peripherally than the others. Antigens were stored frozen and thawed (FT) several times ($\times 1 \times 2$, $\times 3 \times 4$) as indicated. One of the wells was filled with phosphate buffered saline (PBS). The inset shows the right side pattern after tannic acid intensification (see the text and Fig. 4). The precipitates seen with PA1 are labelled I and II in Fig. 2a. A weak line to antiserum 1H, seen as heterogeneity in II, is indicated with an arrow and III.

SC-a). The I precipitate often showed a slight curvature towards adjacent wells regardless of whether these were filled with PBS, TBA or MH & YE (Fig. 2c). This reaction is considered unspecific or insignificant when not continued in front of the well. A double I line in Fig. 2b, lower right, might be an artefact caused by applying the antigen twice or due to excess antibody.

The PA2 preparations, which were obtained by simplifying the preparative procedures to a minimum, were comparable to PA1 in some tests (Fig. 2), but gave only faint precipitates in others (Fig. 3a), as did fresh CA preparations (Fig. 3b-d). It was detected that repeated freeze-thawing in the presence of 1 M KBr could be used to increase the I precipitate (Fig. 3b). A weak intermediate line

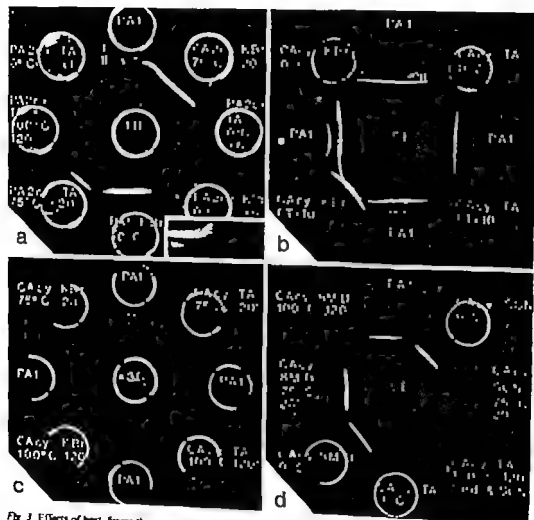


Fig. 3 Effects of heat, freeze-thaw treatment, and KBr wash and thiocyanate ions on fibrinogen antigens. The antigens, sera and immunoprecipitates are labelled as in Fig. 1 and explained in the text. A weak line intermediate between I and II often seen with the SE antiserum, is indicated by an arrow in Fig. 3b. Mixtures of antigens with various chemicals and subsequent treatments are indicated on the figure. TA: 0.01 M Tris, 0.01 M NaH₂PO₄ buffer pH 7.5. KBr: 1 M final concentration in TA buffer. pH 7.5. 83MU: 8 M urea in distilled water. SCN: 3 M sodium thiocyanate in 0.01 M sodium phosphate buffer pH 6.5. $\times 6$ approximately six times larger volume of antigen in the well (several zones at 100°C for 120 min, FT: 10 freeze-thaw treatment in 10 cycles; Sed & SCN: the sediment collected from CAcy heat-treated in TA buffer at 100°C for 120 min was suspended in the SCN solution. The heat in Fig. 3a shows part of the lower right-hand immunoprecipitate after trisacetic acid treatment (see Fig. 4).

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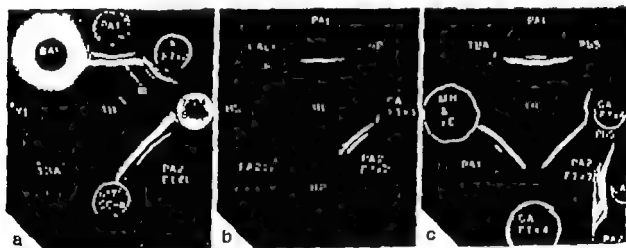


Fig. 2. Specificity testing of antifimbrial antibody. The IH antiserum was used. Fig. 2a shows the results with blood agar plate extract (BAE), yeast extract (YE) and tryptose blood agar extract (TBA), compared with purified antigen 1 (PA1) and 2 (PA2), crude antigen (CA), and whole-cell antigens in TA buffer pH 7.5 freeze-thawed four times, of *Moraxella nonliquefaciens* 7784 SC-c and of *Neisseria elongata* subsp. *glycophila* 6171/75 SC-a. All antigens, except PA1 and PA2, were filled into the wells several times. In Fig. 2b human plasma (HP), and a human serum pool (HS) are compared (at a later date) with the same PA1, PA2 and CA antigens as above, as well as with control antigens, CAcx and PA2cy. Fig. 2c also shows repeated experiments with the same PA2 and CA antigens, and, in addition TBA and a mixture of YE and Mueller Hinton broth extract (MH). Larger wells were used for this mixture and for one experiment with an increased amount of CA. The latter well was placed more peripherally than the others. Antigens were stored frozen and thawed (FT) several times ($\times 1 \times 2$, $\times 3 \times 4$) as indicated. One of the wells was filled with phosphate buffered saline (PBS). The inset shows the right side pattern after tannic acid intensification (see the text and Fig. 4). The precipitates seen with PA1 are labelled I and II in Fig. 2a. A weak line to antiserum III, seen as heterogeneity in II, is indicated with an arrow and III.

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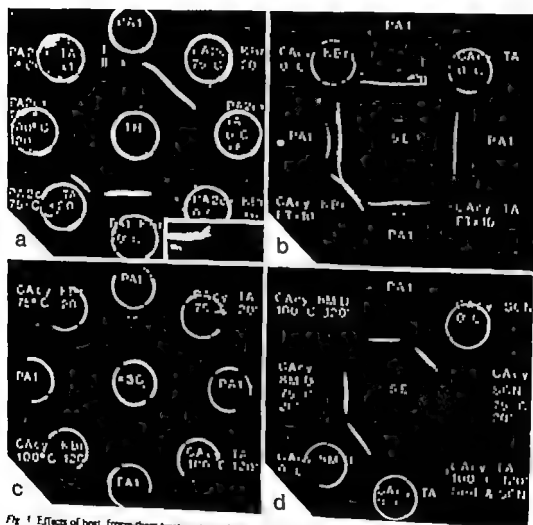


Fig. 1 Effects of heat, freeze-thaw treatment, and KBr urea and thiocyanate ions on fibronal antigens. The antigens, sera and serumoprecipitates are labeled as in Fig. 2 and explained in the text. A weak line intermediate between I and II, often seen with the SE antiserum, is indicated by an arrow in Fig. 3b. Mixtures of antigens with various chemicals and subsequent treatments are indicated on the figures. TA: 0.01 M tris, 0.01 M Na_2HPO_4 buffer pH 7.5- KBr: 1 M final concentration in TA buffer pH 7.5 8 MU 8 M urea in distilled water SCN: 3 M sodium thiocyanate in 0.01 M applications) than in the one labeled $\times 1$ 75°C 20' heat treatment of the antigen at 75°C for 20 min, 100°C 120' the same at 100°C for 120 min, FT $\times 10$ freeze-thaw treatment in 10 cycles, Ed & SCN: the sediment collected from CAcy heat-treated in TA buffer at 100°C for 120 min was suspended in the SCN solution. The most in Fig. 3a shows part of the lower right-hand serumoprecipitate after basic acid treatment (see Fig. 4)

(arrow) of PA1 to antiserum 5E can be seen. The 3C antiserum shows only the two main precipitates (Fig. 3c). Other chaotropic agents like 8 M urea and 3 M sodium thiocyanate, gave predominantly the II precipitate, and this was also the main one seen after 75°C treatment in buffer or in 1 M KBr (Fig. 3a, c and d). Heating at 100°C for 120 min gave coagulation and abolished the immunoprecipitation in the gel (Fig. 3c). Thiocyanate was unable to solubilize this material (Fig. 3d).

Electron microscopy showed that the freeze-thawed PA2cx antigen (Fig. 1d) was similar to untreated antigens, but the filaments seemed to be more irregular in outline and tended less to aggregate side by side. On the other hand, Fig. 1e clearly shows that PA2cx heat-treated in KBr had a different morphology: very few intact fimbriae (arrowheads) can be seen on a background of small rods about 10 nm thick, rod length varies between 20 and 300 nm. Thus, the appearance of the fimbriae is changed after heating in the presence of KBr. Immunodiffusion experiments with the antigens after ultracentrifugation showed that the heat-treated antigen gave a reaction of identity with a II precipitate, and the freeze-thawed antigen gave a precipitate similar to I but it was broader.

Reactions with antigens from other bacteria and the tannic acid intensification of immunoprecipitates. Because only *M. nonliquefaciens* 7784 SC-c fimbriae had been used for immunization, it was thought that some of the precipitates might represent strain-specific reactions. For the control experiments, selected variants of closely and more distantly related bacteria were studied.

When the antisera were tested with several

whole-cell extracts, a weak precipitation occurred initially only with the 7784 SC-c extract, the source of the PA1 fimbriae (cf. Fig. 2a). For the control experiments, the antigens were subjected to freeze-thawing in 1 M KBr (Fig. 4a) and to 75°C for 20 min in 1 M KBr (Fig. 4b), since the 7784 SC-c CA antigen precipitates were demonstrated regularly under these conditions. Fig. 4a shows precipitates only with PA1 and 7784 SC-c whole-cell extract. In Fig. 4b where tannic acid treatment was used, two immunoprecipitates also with *M. nonliquefaciens* 4663/62 SC-a can be seen, whereas 3067/66 SC-a is difficult to evaluate due to its location (see also Fig. 5a).

Fig. 4c shows that no precipitate was found with the 3067/66 N-a strain, even when tannic acid was used, thus providing further evidence that it was a fimbrial immunoprecipitate which was being studied. Slight precipitation was occasionally observed with the *M. bovis* 10900 fim whole-cell extract. An other lot of PA1 antigen, PA1 was similar to PA1 and gave one line that was shorter towards 10900 fim (Fig. 4c).

The weak precipitates seen with 4663/62 SC-a and 3067/66 SC-a (Fig. 4b, but see also Fig. 5a) and, in particular, the one seen with *M. bovis* 10900 fim (Fig. 4c), seem to resemble the II or the weak intermediate precipitate line (arrow) seen with the 5E antiserum. In another control experiment, crude and purified antigens from *M. nonliquefaciens* 3067/66 N-a and SC-a were prepared with the same technique as used for 7784 SC-c. Fig. 5a shows two precipitate lines to antiserum 1H with a PA2cx preparation of 3067/66 SC-a freeze-thawed in KBr. There is fusion of one line with the III line

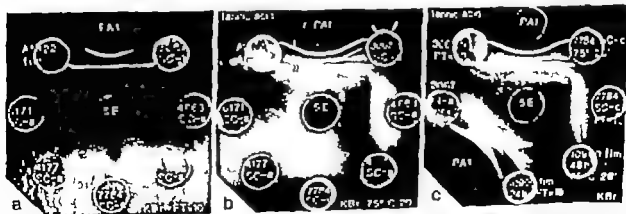


Fig. 4. Comparison of purified fimbrial antigen (PA1) with various whole-cell extracts. The sera, antigens and immunoprecipitates are labelled as in Figs. 2 and 3. The whole-cell antigens tested are labelled with strain/variant designation (see text for species). Treatment applied to all antigens except PA1 is indicated (lower right) on the individual figures. Two gel diffusion plates were intensified with tannic acid as indicated (upper left).

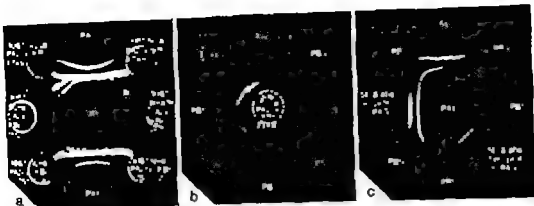


Fig. 5 Experiments with antigens from *Moraxella moultyphocytis* 3067/66 and absorption of antiserum against strain 7784 SC-c (limbics) with denatured fibronal protein. Fig. 5a shows experiments with 3067/66 N-a and SC-a antigens, in 1 M KBr purified by the same procedures as used for 7784 SC-a, CACx and PA2cx antigens. CACx antiserum from the 3067/66 N-a and SC-a variants (middle wells) were kept at 0°C, and PA2cx antigens from the same variants were either freeze-thawed 10 times (upper side wells) or heated at 75°C for 20 min (lower side wells). PA1 (from 7784 SC-c, untreated), was added to the uppermost and the lowermost wells for comparison. In Fig. 5b PA2cx from 3067/66 SC-a, in 1 M KBr freeze-thawed 10 times is tested against various antisera to PA1. Antisera from different rabbits are separated by wells filled with PBS. See text and Figs. 2 and 3 for experimental details and labelling. Fig. 5c shows the result of absorbing the SE antiserum with fibronal subunit protein from *M. moultyphocytis* 7784 SC-c fixed in polyacrylamide gel (abs. prot. in PAO). For control, a parallel absorption with only polyacrylamide gel (abs. no prot. in PAO). PA1 antigen from the same strain was placed in the central well, unabsorbed serum for comparison in the upper well, and PBS in the crossed wells. All the plates were intensified with omnicord.

given by PA1 and partial fusion (spurring) of the other with the II line of PA1. Antiserum 5E (not shown) gave a similar picture, i.e. spurring with II (irregularly) and (partial?) fusion with the mercuric dextran line (indicated with an arrow in Figs. 3b and 4b). Fig. 5a also shows that the PA2cx 3067/66 SC-a antigen heat-treated in KBr gave weaker precipitates with the 1H antiserum than that treated by freeze-thawing in KBr. The 3067/66 N-a preparations were negative. The 3067/66 SC-a CACx antigen in KBr gave no precipitate when untreated, but similar reactions as PA2cx preparations when treated identically. Three to five times more 3067/66 SC-a antigen protein as compared to 7784 SC-c was required to give equally strong immunoprecipitates. In Fig. 5b the PA2cx antigen of 3067/66 SC-a freeze-thawed in KBr shows identical precipitates with the 5E, 5H and 3F antisera. The 1D and 1H antisera also showed this activity (weakly), but in addition showed a more distinct precipitate closer to the antiserum wells, which presumably represents the activity indicated by III (Figs. 2a and 5a).

Since the results with the 3067/66 strain became so much clearer after preparation of PA2cx and CACx antigens, I checked whether the presence of

whole cells might be detrimental to immunoprecipitation. However, there was no effect of adding 3067/66 N-a cells to the PA1 antigen.

It was also thought that the weak precipitates with whole-cell antigens could have been due to a lack of homogenization. The effect of ultrasonication of 7784 SC-c and 3067/66 SC-a cells was tested in 1 M KBr in TA buffer pH 7.5. No significant difference was seen as compared with cells treated by freeze-thawing in 1 M KBr.

Absorption experiments. The antiserum 5E was absorbed with an immunosorbent made from the fibronal protein band in polyacrylamide gel (16), with the result seen in Fig. 5c. The II immunoprecipitate has disappeared almost completely after the specific protein absorption, whereas no such influence is seen on the serum aliquot absorbed with a similar amount of polyacrylamide gel. The I line seems almost unchanged, but was more clearly weakened, in other experiments. Absorption with the material which coagulated by boiling a PA2cx preparation also removed the II precipitate preferentially from 1H and 5E antisera in further experiments. Absorption with untreated 7784 SC-c (limbics) (PA2cx) removed all precipitating activity from the antisera.

Detection of *M. nonliquefaciens* fimbrial antigens by double immunodiffusion. Immunization of three rabbits with the most highly purified fimbrial antigen (PA1) of *M. nonliquefaciens* 7784 SC-c available gave rise to antibodies that could be detected in gel diffusion against the immunizing antigen. The antigen was pure in SDS polyacrylamide slab gel electrophoresis and in the amino acid sequencer (16). Morphologically slight contamination with subcellular particles and a few whole cells could be detected. Agar plate control antigens were completely negative.

No or only faint precipitates were detectable with some of the 7784 SC-c fimbrial preparations and whole-cell antigens, unless they were subjected in prolonged preparatory procedures or certain types of pretreatment. Freeze-thawing in TA buffer but more effectively in 1 M KBr showed regularly that the antigen formed two main immunoprecipitates (I and II). After heating the antigen at 75°C for 20 min in 1 M KBr mainly the one labelled II (closest to the antiserum well) occurred, and both disappeared by coagulation at 100°C. Heterogeneity in the II precipitate was noted with the IH antiserum as two closely positioned lines. The weak line on the antiserum side was defined as the III precipitate. A weak precipitate (arrow) was seen between the two main precipitates with the 5E antiserum. Serological identity between these two weak lines was not established.

Absorption experiments with fimbrial protein immobilized in polyacrylamide gel, and with heat coagulated fimbriae showed that activity could be removed corresponding to the II precipitate. Precipitates partly fusing with II and completely with III were also given by purified antigen from *M. nonliquefaciens* 3067/66 SC-a and the IH antiserum, whereas the 3067/66 N-a variant preparations were completely negative.

It is concluded therefore, that antibodies to *M. nonliquefaciens* fimbrial antigen are present in the antisera, and that the antigen in its most native and polymerized form is almost undetectable by immunodiffusion analysis owing to its filamentous nature or its aggregation tendency or both. Furthermore it is suggested that various physical and chemical treatments may change this antigen into diffusible forms some of which are showing immunological cross reactions with antigens from related, fimbriated bacteria. It is also possible that one of these forms (I) may change into the others (II/III). The fimbrial antigen is sensitive to prolonged boiling; coagulation was seen to occur. The experiments with 3067/66 N-a gave no indication of precipitins

to cell wall antigens in common with this strain in any of the antisera.

Cross reacting fimbrial antigens. The antisera also reacted with pretreated whole-cell extracts of *M. nonliquefaciens* 3067/66 SC-a, 4663/62 SC-a and weakly with *M. bovis* 10900 fim but not with extracts from 3067/66 N-a (non-fimbriated) or other fimbriated bacteria included in this study (*M. atlantae*, *K. kingae* and *N. elongata* subsp. *glycophila*). It should be noted that *M. bovis* is closely related genetically to *M. nonliquefaciens* (2, 20, 21), although only one of two strains gave a positive reaction. *M. atlantae* is more distantly related (8), and *K. kingae* and *N. elongata* subsp. *glycophila* are clearly separated from *Moraxella* genetically (7, 21, 22, 23). The antibodies thus seemed to react with fimbrial antigen of *M. nonliquefaciens* 7784 SC-c and closely related bacteria only.

However the other whole-cell extracts of fimbriated bacteria giving negative reactions may contain the corresponding antigen in amounts too small to be detected in immunodiffusion as performed here. *M. bovis* 4 SC-a may be an example. The yield of PA2cx antigen from 3067/66 SC-a, e.g. was only about one-fifth of PA2 from 7784 SC-c. Moreover the cross-reacting antigens might give weaker reactions in relation to the protein content than those used for immunization. This seemed to be the case with the 3067/66 SC-a antigens.

The experiments with 3067/66 SC-a preparations confirmed that pretreatment is required to reveal precipitates. The results with 4663/62 SC-a and *M. bovis* 10900 fim indicate that also these strains have antigenic determinants in common with 7784 SC-c and 3067/66 SC-a. Purification of fimbriae, or at least preparation of crude antigen from the other species, will be required to confirm the preliminary findings shown in Fig. 4a and b and to test further for cross reactions.

Bevre *et al.* (4) studied bacterial agglutination of *M. nonliquefaciens* 3067/66 N-a and SC-a cells with antisera in whole cells and heat-treated cells of both variants. Both identical heat stable and heat labile envelope antigens were detected in the two variants. Absorption experiments with the sera indicated as the only clear serological difference that the SC cells were distinctly prone to incomplete agglutination in SC antisera absorbed with N cells. It was suggested that this was due to the fimbriae which were probably present in unequal quantities among the cells of the SC population.

The experiments by Haug & Henriksen (20) indicated cross-reactions between all the strains of *M. lacunata*, *M. bovis* and *M. nonliquefaciens* studied by them in immunodiffusion, which is in good agreement with the view that the organisms

are closely related. They also found numerous cross-reactions that were difficult to explain. Their sera were obtained by immunizing with a mixture of an ultrasonicated extract and whole cells of unknown fimbriae type, and it cannot be stated with certainty whether the cross-reacting antigens represented fimbriae.

Immunodiffusion studies of fimbrial antigens in other bacteria. Purified fimbriae from *N. gonorrhoeae* F62, colonial type T1 gave one band midway between the antigen and antiserum wells, showing a reaction of identity with a band of the same location from sonically treated cells, regardless of whether the antisera were made from purified fimbriae or from whole-cell extracts. Colonial type T4 (non-fimbriated) gonococcal extracts gave no immunoprecipitate, and antisera produced with T4 type cells did not react with isolated fimbriae (29). Fimbriae from four different gonococcal strains were antigenically distinguishable in immunodiffusion, even though they shared some antigenic determinants, as shown by spurring of lines (10). Single precipitation lines have been detected with fimbrial antigens and antifimbrial sera in *Aeromonas hydrophila* (26), *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (17) and *E. coli* The K88 (35) and the K99 (24) antigens of *E. coli* formed precipitates close to the antigen well.

Fimbriae from representative strains of three serotypes of *Corynebacterium renale* were studied by immunodiffusion. It was found that the fimbriae of one strain were serologically identical with those of other strains of the same serotype and were different from those of strains belonging to the two other serotypes. Fimbriae were also shown to change on sonication but still showed partial cross-reaction with purified fimbrial antigen. After heat treatment, the ability to form immunoprecipitates was increased and shorter pieces were observed by electron microscopy (36). Non-fusing precipitates were formed after chemical treatment. Heterogeneity in the precipitation pattern with crude fimbrial antigen was interpreted as cell wall contamination (25).

The results reported here might facilitate immunological analysis of other fimbrial systems by pointing out the effects of controlled denaturation by KBr heat, urea or thiocyanate ions. The ease with which extensively purified fimbriae (PA1) are detected by immunodiffusion may be due to slight denaturation taking place during purification.

by numerous documents. Dr. Wiger M. Sc. read parts of the manuscript to improve it linguistically and pointed out where certain controls were required.

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ACID-SOLUBLE NUCLEOTIDES OF *ACHOLEPLASMA (MYCOPLASMA) LAIDLAWII* A

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Virkola, P. Acid-soluble nucleotides of *Acholeplasma (Mycoplasma) laidlawii* A. Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B, 86: 179-183 1978

A study was made of the acid-soluble nucleotides present in *Acholeplasma (Mycoplasma) laidlawii* A during growth. The nucleotide pool of this organism is meagre, both qualitatively and quantitatively. The main nucleotides are uridine mono- and diphosphates, and none of the more complex nucleotide compounds, such as uridine diphosphate (UDP) sugars or sugar peptides, required for cell wall formation, were detected. The nucleotide composition of *A. laidlawii* A is compared with that of the *Streptococcus* L form.

Key words. *Acholeplasma (Mycoplasma) laidlawii* A, acid-soluble nucleotides

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The structural integrity of the bacterial cell is maintained by a peptidoglycan present in the cell walls. In *Streptococcus pyogenes* (Edwards & Paros 1962), *Staphylococcus aureus* (Fodor & Tóth 1965; Fodor 1966) and *Bacillus licheniformis* and *B. subtilis* (Ward 1975), stable L-phase variants, although devoid of an organized cell wall, accumulate nucleotide precursors of peptidoglycan, UDP-N-acetyl muramic acid and UDP-N-acetyl muramylpeptides during growth.

Cells of *Mycoplasma* and *Acholeplasma* are also surrounded by a membrane only and thus resemble the L-phase variants of bacteria in size and morphology. Although the mycoplasmas do not contain either diaminopimelic or muramic acid or their microcomplexes, they do contain glucosamine (Vande 1963) and galactosamine (Egelbom & Moravitz 1968) in their membranes. Several unidentified strains from goats, sheep and poultry as well as *Acholeplasma laidlawii*, were found to contain trace amounts of neutral sugars extractable with hot aqueous phenol (Pickett *et al.* 1963). No amino sugars were detected in these preparations. From *A. laidlawii* a polymer composed of N-acetyl

glucosamine has been isolated and characterized (Gilliam & Moravitz 1972). This appears to be weakly associated with the cytoplasmic membrane (Terry & Zupnik 1973). Lipopolysaccharides isolated from *A. laidlawii* contain both neutral (glucose, galactose and mannose) and N-acetylated (fucosamine, an unidentified deoxyhexosamine, galactosamine and glucosamine) sugars (Smith *et al.* 1976).

No information was available as to whether mycoplasmas contain the nucleotide precursors of the peptidoglycan necessary for cell wall formation. A study was made, therefore, of the acid-soluble free nucleotides in *A. laidlawii* A.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Chemicals

All chemicals were of analytical grade. The nucleotide standard solutions were purchased from Calbiochem, La Jolla, Switzerland.

Organism

Acholeplasma (Mycoplasma) laidlawii A was kindly supplied by E. A. Freundt, Institute of General Pathology and Bacteriology University of Aarhus, Denmark.

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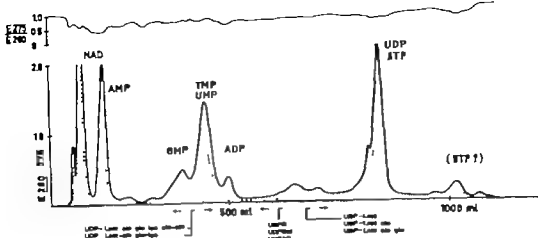


Fig 1 Acid-soluble free nucleotides of *Actinoplanes (Mycoplanes) lentus* d 4 after 24 hours' growth (15 l culture).

UDPAG = Uridine-5'-diphosphate N-acetyl-glucosamine

UDPAc-Lact = Uridine-5-diphosphate acetylsuccinic acid

UDRAG-Lact. also

UDPAG-Lact, abt. 90%

UDPAG-Lact, ala, glu, lys

UDPAG-Lact, ala, glu, lys, ala,

UDPG = Uridine-5'-diphosphate glucose

UDPGal = Undecyl 5'-diphosphate galactose

the cells. It contained mainly NAD, AMP, GMP and TMP with small amounts of UMP. Since no significant change in the nucleotide pattern occurred during culture, the presence of these nucleotides in the culture medium did not restrict the growth of *A. leishmanii*. However, it was not possible to estimate whether the nucleotides found in the cells had been synthesized by them or taken up from the culture medium.

The requirements of *A. laidlawii* A for nucleic acid precursors have been studied by Razin & Knight (1960), Razin (1962) and Lohse & Smith (1974), who found that the only nucleic acid precursors necessary were guanine, thymine and either cytosine or uracil.

Accordingly we conclude that *A. loddwesi* *A.* is able to synthesize ADP, ATP and UDP, that its free nucleotide pool is small, and that it apparently lacks

TABLE I. Extractable Acid-soluble Ultrasol-absorbing Material

| | <i>A. luteiflavus</i> OD totale ^a | <i>S. aureus</i> OD totale ^b | <i>L. fermentum</i> OD totale ^b |
|--------------------|---|--|---|
| | /1000 ml medium | /g dry cells | /g dry cells |
| total | SD 62 ± 24 | SD 246 ± 94 | 469 |
| non-polar material | 18 ± 11 | 71 ± 44 | 50 |
| nucleotide content | 44 ± 21 | 175 ± 83 | 411 |

^a Expressed as total absorbance (OD total).

$$100 \times (\text{mg of perchloric acid extract}) \times (\text{volume of extract in ml, average of six determinations (Frutkin & Ruckelshaus, 1961)})$$

■ Edwards & Passos (1962), standard deviations not given

Cultural Conditions

The Butler & Knight (1960) modification of the original Edward medium (1947) was used with the following changes. heart infusion to 1 per cent peptone broth (Evans), 20 vol of horse serum to 10 vol of human serum (inactivated by heating for 30 min at 56°C), the concentration of penicillin G (when used) in the final medium was 200 U/l. In addition, the medium contained 7.5 g/l glucose (Razin 1964).

The inoculum (0.5 per cent) used was a 24-hour-old *A. laidlawii* culture suspension, and the organisms were grown at 37°C in 5–10 l culture flasks with three different degrees of aeration (Virkola 1972). Growth was expressed, (1) as turbidity units measured by a Klett-Summerson colorimeter (filter S 54), (2) as living cells estimated by the colony count method for mycoplasma (Butler & Knight 1960). After 10–48 hours growth, the culture was shifted rapidly (Sawikowicz & Virkola 1963) and the cells were harvested by centrifugation (13200 × g 20 min, 50 ml batches) in cold. (Attempts to collect cells of *A. laidlawii* A by the continuous flow system of a Serrall SS centrifuge were unsuccessful). The combined pellets were washed three times with three volumes of 0.9 per cent NaCl and frozen. Blood agar plates were used to confirm the absence of bacterial contamination.

Column Chromatography

The acid-soluble nucleotides were separated as before (Virkola 1970) using Dowex 2 resin, HCOO-form, 200–400 mesh, 8 per cent cross-linked packed in columns 12–20 cm long and 0.8–1.0 cm in diameter. The columns were run at room temperature or at +2°C with a cooling jacket round the column (Virkola 1969). The eluate was collected in 5 ml fractions. The appearance of nucleotides in the eluate was monitored as absorbance at 260 nm and at 275 nm. The detection limit of this system was about 25–100 nmol/nucleotide (Virkola 1970). The fractions of each peak were combined and lyophilized. During freeze-drying, the removal of ammonium formate was enhanced by gentle heating when necessary.

Paper and Thin layer Chromatography

The individual nucleotide peaks in column chromatography were identified by paper and thin-layer chromatography. The separated nucleotides were also hydrolyzed with HCl and the resulting bases analysed by spectrophotometry (Sawikowicz 1956). The nucleotides and bases were visualized and their positions marked under UV light. The solvents used in paper chromatography were, for nucleotides isobutyric acid – ammonia (Magesanik *et al.* 1950), neutral ethanol – ammonium acetate – water (Paladini & Leloir 1957), propanol – ammonia – water (Baddiley *et al.* 1956); for amino sugars and acids n-butanol – acetic acid – water (Strange & Dark 1965). After acid hydrolysis of the nucleotides, purine and pyrimidine bases were separated by paper chromatography with 86 per cent n-butanol as solvent (Markham & Smith 1949).

The nucleotides were also separated by thin layer chromatography according to Randerath & Randerath (1964 a, b).

An Auto-Analyzer method (Henriksen 1965) was used for phosphate determinations.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Washing of the cell mass is a critical step in the analysis. Extensive washing tends to disrupt the cells, but washing is essential to remove the growth medium with its contaminating nucleotides. We used absorbance at 260 nm to observe the amount of acid-soluble material in successive washings. The material decreased rapidly during the first three washings and then remained at a constant level. Three washings of the pellet were therefore considered to be optimal.

The organisms were harvested at intervals during the logarithmic phase of growth. In the first interval (10–16 hours) the yield of organisms was so small that the different nucleotides could not be measured. In later intervals the nucleotide pool (Fig. 1) was shown to contain eight nucleotides, some of which are found in the *Streptococcus* L-phase (Edwards & Panos 1962). However there were also several differences. None of the peaks contained any amino acids after acid hydrolysis as tested by paper chromatography. The fractions in which nucleotide sugar derivatives were most likely to appear (550–700 ml) did not contain any sugars when tested by paper chromatography. Thus *A. laidlawii* A seems to lack several nucleotide precursors of the cell wall constituents, UDP-N-acetylglucosamine, UDP-N-hexosamine and UDP-muramyl peptides which are present in the *Streptococcus* L form (see also Table 2). However unlike the latter the mycoplasma contains UMP and TMP. In growing *A. laidlawii* A the total amount of free nucleotides is smaller than in *Streptococcus* or its L form (Table 1). *A. laidlawii* A also contains smaller total amounts of extractable acid-soluble ultraviolet-absorbing material and free nucleotides, but a larger relative amount of non-polar material.

Quantitative analysis showed that the dominating nucleotides in *A. laidlawii* A were UDP and UMP (Table 2). The corresponding analysis of the *Streptococcus* L form (Edwards & Panos 1962) showed clearly that the dominant nucleotides in their pool were those concerned in the more advanced steps of cell wall synthesis (UDP-muramyl peptide, UDP-NAG, UDP-hexosamine).

No change in the composition of the free nucleotides of *A. laidlawii* A was produced by the temperature during the separation, the addition of penicillin to the growth medium or the degree of aeration during growth.

Both before and after culture of mycoplasma, the culture medium was analysed in the same way as

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TABLE 2. Nucleotide composition of *A. laidlawii* A, *Streptococcus* and the L forms of the latter

| | <i>A. laidlawii</i> A ^b | <i>Streptococcus</i> ^a | L form ^a |
|--------------------|------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------|
| | pmol/1000 ml medium | pmol/g | pmol/g |
| CMP | — | — | 2.14 |
| DPN | not measured | — | 2.13 |
| AMP | 0.16 | 0.66 | 1.75 |
| GMP | 0.15 | 0.50 | 2.61 |
| UMP TMP | 0.25 | 0.98 | 0.87 |
| UDP mur-peptide | — | — | not identified |
| Uridine nucleotide | — | — | 3.66 |
| ADP | — | — | — |
| UDP N AG | 0.09 | 0.37 | 2.07 |
| UDP-hexosamine | — | — | 0.46 |
| GDP | — | — | 2.03 |
| UDP | 0.68 | 2.71 | 0.88 |
| ATP | 0.08 | 0.33 | 1.27 |
| | | | 1.45 |
| | | | 1.12 |
| | | | 1.79 |
| | | | 1.61 |
| | | | 1.90 |

^a Edwards & Panos (1962)^b average of three determinations

nucleotide peptides. The L-phase variants of different species of bacteria have been classified into three groups on the basis of the type of defect in peptidoglycan synthesis (Ward 1975). Plapp & Kandler (1964) suggested that the presence of alanine racemase could be used for differentiating between mycoplasmas and L-phase micro-organisms. According to our results, mycoplasmas differ from the L forms of bacteria in that they apparently lack the nucleotide precursors needed for cell wall formation. This might serve as one more criterion for classification.

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TABLE 2. Nucleotide composition of *A. laidlawii* A, *Streptococcus* and the L-forms of the latter

| | <i>A. laidlawii</i> A ^a | <i>Streptococcus</i> | L-forms ^a |
|--------------------|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| | $\mu\text{mol}/1000 \text{ ml}$ medium | $\mu\text{mol}/\text{g}$ | $\mu\text{mol}/\text{g}$ |
| CMP | — | — | 2.14 |
| DPN | not measured | — | 2.13 |
| AMP | 0.16 | 0.66 | 1.75 |
| GMP | 0.15 | 0.50 | 0.55 |
| UMP TMP | 0.25 | 0.98 | not identified |
| UDP mur-peptide | — | — | 3.66 |
| Uridine nucleotide | — | — | — |
| ADP | 0.09 | 0.37 | 2.07 |
| UDP N-AG | — | — | 0.46 |
| UDP hexosamine | — | — | 2.03 |
| GDP | — | — | 0.88 |
| UDP | 0.68 | 2.71 | 1.27 |
| ATP | 0.08 | 0.33 | 1.45 |
| | | | 1.12 |
| | | | 1.79 |
| | | | 1.61 |
| | | | 1.90 |

^a Edwards & Panos (1962)^b average of three determinations

nucleotide peptides. The L-phase variants of different species of bacteria have been classified into three groups on the basis of the type of defect in peptidoglycan synthesis (Ward 1975). Plapp & Kandler (1964) suggested that the presence of alanine racemase could be used for differentiating between mycoplasmas and L-phase micro-organisms. According to our results mycoplasmas differ from the L forms of bacteria in that they apparently lack the nucleotide precursors needed for cell wall formation. This might serve as one more criterion for classification.

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RAPID ONCOGENESIS IN VIVO BY CHICKEN RETROVIRUS OK10

LARS HORTLING

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Hortling, L. Rapid oncogenesis in vivo by chicken retrovirus OK10. *Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B*, 86: 185-192, 1978

The OK10 virus complex is known to contain two detectable viruses: a) focus-forming virus OK10V that transforms chick embryo cells, and b) an associated virus OK10AV present in excess that converts the morphology of cultured chick embryo cells. The pathogenesis of OK10 virus infection was studied, using 2-4 day old Brown Leghorn chickens. A group of chickens was sacrificed at weekly intervals, serum samples were taken and tumours were examined for virus. Autopsies of the chickens were performed and gross and microscopic changes were registered. After intraperitoneal injection of 10⁴ focus-forming units of OK10 virus, infectious OK10AV was detected after one week in Bursa Fabricii, thymus and liver and OK10V after two weeks in Bursa Fabricii but in no other organ. Neutralizing serum antibodies developed within three weeks. The first malignant changes, in the tumours were detected after three weeks. The infection was lethal in all experiments within 6-8 weeks. In the secondary the tumours consisted of large tumour cells with clear cytoplasm, a large nucleus and prominent nucleoli. The origin of these cells could not be established. The cells were surrounded by lymphoid cells. From the tumours, tumourous cell lines were established which produced both viruses OK10V and OK10AV and had blast-like morphology. After intravenous injection of OK10 virus, tumours could also be found in liver, kidneys and testes. The associated virus OK10AV was infectious for chickens and induced neutralizing serum antibodies. One out of seven chickens died of leukaemia after 1½ years. The OK10 virus complex, consisting of a tumour forming and a weakly oncogenic associated virus, appears to have a multiple oncogenic potential in its rapid oncogenic action. *AM* 1-79

Key words: Avian retrovirus, RNA tumour virus, chicken, oncogenesis, pathogenesis.

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Avian C-type tumour viruses are divided according to their oncogenic potential into leukaemia and sarcoma viruses. This classification has been further extended by Temin (33) and Coffin (7), who divided RNA tumour viruses into four groups, depending on their transforming interactions with host cells in culture and the type of tumour they induce in animals.

To the first group (7) belong the sarcoma viruses which transform fibroblasts in tissue culture and cause sarcomas in chicken.

The second group consists of viruses that induce leukaemia and similar diseases within a month and transform cells *in vitro*. Strain MC 29 avian

leukosis virus (15-21) causes a broad spectrum of cancers of myeloid origin (18) and transforms chick embryo cells *in vitro* within three days, forming distinct foci in chick embryo cell cultures (4, 16, 17). Avian myeloblastosis virus transforms haema topoietic cells in culture (1, 3, 22, 23). *In vivo* this virus causes myeloblastosis, osteopetrosis, lymphoid leukaemia and nephroblastomas in chickens (2). Inoculation of chickens with avian erythroblastosis virus leads to acute erythroblastosis within a few weeks after infection (10).

In vitro this virus transforms both chicken bone marrow cells and chick embryo fibroblasts (12, 13). All these viruses consist of a transforming virus and an associated virus present in excess (14, 19, 24).

RAPID ONCOGENESIS IN VIVO BY CHICKEN RETROVIRUS OK10

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TABLE 1. Detection of OK10 and OK10AV virus in OK10 Virus Infected Chickens by Virus Assay from Culture Media of Organ Cultures Established from Various Tissues

| Days after infection | Chicken No | Bone marrow | | Spleen | | Liver | | Thymus | | Bursa | |
|----------------------|------------|-------------|--------|--------|--------|-------|--------|--------|--------|-------|--------|
| | | OK10V | OK10AV | OK10V | OK10AV | OK10V | OK10AV | OK10V | OK10AV | OK10V | OK10AV |
| 7 | 1 | - | - | - | - | - | + | - | + | - | + |
| | 2 | - | - | - | - | - | + | - | + | - | + |
| 14 | 3 | - | - | - | - | - | + | - | + | + | + |
| | 4 | - | - | - | - | - | + | - | + | + | + |
| 21 | 5 | - | - | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| | 6 | - | - | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| 28 | 7 | - | - | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| | 8 | - | - | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |

The Assays were performed using combined focus titration (for OK10V) and interference (for OK10AV), see Materials and Methods

RESULTS

Detection of Virus in Chickens Infected with OK10 Virus

The associated virus OK10AV was detected after one week in Bursa Fabricii, thymus and liver but not in spleen and bone marrow. Three weeks after infection, the associated virus could also be detected in the spleen (Table 1).

TABLE 2. Neutralizing Serum Antibodies in OK10 Virus Infected Chickens

| Days after infection | Chicken No | Neutralization index ^a |
|----------------------|------------|-----------------------------------|
| - | Control | 1.0 |
| 7 | 1 | 1.07 |
| | 2 | 1.05 |
| 14 | 3 | 1.05 |
| | 4 | 1.07 |
| 21 | 5 | 0.61 |
| | 6 | 0.51 |
| 28 | 7 | 0.31 |
| | 8 | 0.43 |
| 35 | 9 | 0.07 |
| | 10 | 0.29 |

^a The neutralization index denotes the ratio of infectious OK10V virus in focus-forming units, detected after treatment with 1:50 dilutions of the test serum and control sera, respectively.

The transforming virus OK10V was detected after two weeks in Bursa Fabricii but not in any of the other organs tested. Three weeks after infection OK10V could be detected in all the organs tested except in bone marrow (Table 1).

No virus was detected in the controls.

Neutralizing Antibodies in Chickens Infected with OK10 Virus

Neutralizing serum antibodies against the OK10 virus complex were detected for the first time after three weeks. The titre of neutralizing antibody increased up to the end of the experiment. No serum antibodies could be detected in uninfected chickens (Table 2).

Tumour Formation in Chickens Infected with OK10 Virus

Macroscopic tumours 1-2 mm in size were seen in the mesenterium of the gut after three weeks. Ascites was found at the same time (Table 3). After six weeks the size of the tumours had increased to 5-8 mm, and macroscopic tumours could easily be detected also in the liver (Fig. 1). No tumours were detected in any other organs.

When chickens were injected intravenously with OK10 virus, tumours could be detected also in the liver kidneys and testes.

Histology of the mesenteric tumours (Fig. 2) showed that they were composed of two kinds of cells, clear cells with a large nucleus, prominent nucleoli and cytoplasmic vacuolation and surrounding lymphocytes. This pattern could be seen three

The third group consist of viruses that are not known to transform any type of cells in culture, but they do induce leukaemia with a long latent period (5-8-27). This group consists of the Rous associated viruses.

The fourth group does not transform cells in culture or is known to cause diseases in chickens (9-26). Only one virus is known for this group viz. RAV-0.

OK10 a recently isolated RNA tumour virus (Oker Blom *et al.* in press) was originally isolated from an embryo of a naturally infected leukotic chicken. Based on its behaviour *in vitro*, the OK10 virus appears to belong to the second group in the classification mentioned above. It has been shown that OK10 is composed of a transforming virus OK10V and an associated virus OK10AV present in excess. OK10AV like Rous associated viruses, converts the morphology of chick embryo cells *in vitro* during prolonged cultivation (28). In contrast, OK10V induces distinct foci under agar overlay and colonies in soft agar within a few days. Both OK10V and OK10AV seem to belong to subgroup A according to interference and neutralization tests (29). This paper describes the pathogenesis *in vivo* of the OK10 virus complex.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Chickens

The chicken used were 2-4 days old Brown Leghorn chickens (C/O or C/E cell type), originating from eggs brought to our Institute in 1969 from Houghton Poultry Research Station, Huntington, England. This flock of chickens has remained leukaemia-free as evidenced by continuous RIF (resistance inducing factor) COFAL (complement fixation virus leukosis), radioimmunoassay and neutralization assays (31).

Viruses and Virus Assays

OK10 virus was isolated from an embryo of a leukotic hen (28). The stock virus for the present experiments was collected from the culture media of secondary chick embryo cells infected with OK10 virus. The preparation had a titre of 5×10^4 focus forming units/ml (OK10V titre) and about 10^7 interfering units per ml (OK10AV titre). The titre of purified OK10AV was 10^4 interfering units per ml and 0.5 ml was used to infect 2-4 day old chickens. Purified OK10AV was obtained by diluting out the OK10V virus.

RSV (RAV-1) was originally obtained from Dr H Hanafusa, Rockefeller University, New York, N.Y. U.S.A. The stock virus used in the interference assay was grown in secondary cultures of chick embryo fibroblasts. The interference titration to assay OK10AV virus was performed according to Rubin (30) using secondary chick embryo fibroblasts in a dose of 250 focus forming units of RSV (RAV-1) virus per 20 cm² culture. OK10V virus was titrated by focus formation (Oker Blom *et al.* in press).

Infection and Observation of Chickens

A group of ten 2-4 day old chickens was injected intraperitoneally with 0.5 ml of the OK10 virus stock. Two chickens were sacrificed at weekly intervals, serum was collected and autopsies were performed. Uninfected chickens were sacrificed at the age of three and five weeks to serve as controls. Tumour formation was recorded and routine histologic sections were prepared from liver, thymus, spleen, bone marrow, Bursa Fabricius and tumours.

Another group of seven chickens was injected intraperitoneally with 10^4 interfering units of OK10AV.

Determination of Neutralizing Serum Antibodies

The neutralization tests were carried out as described previously (28) using a serum dilution of 1:50 and OK10 virus purified by five successive clonings.

Cell Cultures

Main experiment. Virus expression from the blood samples was measured by interference titration from buffy coat cultures, using lymphoprep (Nyegaard & Co A/S, Oslo, Norway) for the purification of the buffy coat cells. Cell cultures were established from liver, thymus, spleen, bone marrow, Bursa Fabricius and tumours. The organs were minced into pieces with scissors and by pipetting, and the tissue fragments were seeded into growth medium using medium 199 supplemented with 10% tryptose phosphate broth, 10% foetal calf serum, 200 units/ml penicillin and 200 µg/ml streptomycin.

Second experiment. In a separate experiment, continuous cell lines were established from tumours induced by OK10 virus. Three 2-4 day old chickens were infected intraperitoneally with 5×10^4 focus-forming units of OK10V and were sacrificed 40 days later. Tissue cultures were prepared from the tumours as above.

Third experiment. In this experiment one chicken was injected intramuscularly with 10^4 tumour cells from a tumour induced by OK10 virus. The chicken was sacrificed 40 days later and autopsy was performed. The bird had tumours in the kidneys, liver, adrenals and testes. Histologically the tumour cells in the liver and kidneys were large blast cells. A pool was prepared from the bone marrow of this chicken and from another chicken which had been infected two months earlier with 2×10^5 transformed chicken embryo cells. On autopsy a tumour was found at the right metatarsus. Further large cystic tumours were found in both kidneys and there were also tumours in both testes. Histologically the tumours were composed of cartilage, cysts and epithelial-like malignant cells. A continuous cell line was established from the pooled bone marrow.

Growth of Cells in Soft Agar

The method described by MacPherson in 1969 (20) was used. Transformed cells were grown in 0.3% agar (Bacto-Difco Laboratories, Detroit, Michigan) on top of 0.5% agar in petri dishes. The number of colonies grown in agar was recorded after 8-10 days.

Test for Growth in Low Serum Concentration

In order to compare the growth of the transformed cells in different serum concentrations, the normal concentration 10% was lowered to 0.9%.

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| 14 | 3 | - | - | - | - | - | + | - | + | + | + |
| | 4 | - | - | - | - | - | + | - | + | + | + |
| 21 | 5 | - | - | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
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The neutralization tests were carried out as described previously (28), using a serum dilution of 1:50 and OK10 virus purified by five successive clonings.

Cell Cultures

Main experiment: Virus expression from the blood samples was measured by interference titration from buffy coat cultures, using lymphoprep (N) equestre & Co A/S, Oslo, Norway) for the purification of the buffy coat cells. Cell cultures were established from liver, thymus, spleen, bone marrow, Bursa Fabricius and tumours. The organs were minced into pieces with scissors and by pipetting, and the tissue fragments were seeded into growth medium using medium 199 supplemented with 10% tryptose phosphate broth, 10% foetal calf serum, 200 units/ml penicillin and 200 µg/ml streptomycin.

Second experiment: In a separate experiment, continuous cell lines were established from tumours induced by OK10 virus. Three 2-4 day old chickens were infected intraperitoneally with 5×10^4 focus-forming units of OK10V and were sacrificed 40 days later. Tissue cultures were prepared from the tumours as above.

Third experiment: In this experiment one chicken was injected intramuscularly with 10^4 tumour cells from a tumour induced by OK10 virus. The chicken was sacrificed 40 days later and autopsy was performed. The bird had tumours in the kidneys, liver, adrenals and testes. Histologically the tumour cells in the liver and kidneys were large blast cells. A pool was prepared from the bone marrow of this chicken and from another chicken which had been infected two months earlier with 2×10^5 transformed chicken embryo cells. On autopsy a tumour was found at the right metatarsus. Further large cystic tumours were found in both kidneys and there were also tumours in both testes. Histologically the tumours were composed of cartilage, cysts and epithelial like malignant cells. A continuous cell line was established from the pooled bone marrow.

Growth of Cells in Soft Agar

The method described by MacPherson in 1969 (20) was used. Transformed cells were grown in 0.3% agar (Bacto, Difco Laboratories, Detroit, Michigan) on top of 0.5% agar in petri dishes. The number of colonies grown in agar was recorded after 8-10 days.

Test for Growth in Low Serum Concentration

In order to compare the growth of the transformed cells in different serum concentrations, the normal concentration 10% was lowered to 0.9%.



Fig. 7. Tumours in the mesenteries of the gut three weeks after infection with OK10 virus. Haematoxylin-eosin staining. The central area is composed of tumour cells with a large nucleus and prominent nucleoli. Lymphoid cells surrounded the central tumour mass. $\times 40$

B. Boundary area between tumour cells (lower left) and lymphoid cells (top right). $\times 100$

C. Higher magnification of the indicated area in B. $\times 400$

TABLE 3 *Tumour Formation of OK10 Virus Infected Chicken*

| Days after infection | Chicken No | Malignant changes |
|----------------------|------------|----------------------------|
| 7 | 1 | — |
| | 2 | — |
| 14 | 3 | — |
| | 4 | — |
| 21 | 5 | Mesenterium, liver ascites |
| | 6 | Mesenterium, liver ascites |
| 28 | 7 | Mesenterium, liver ascites |
| | 8 | Mesenterium, liver ascites |
| 35 | 9 | — |
| | 10 | Mesenterium, liver ascites |

The chickens were sacrificed at weekly intervals and autopsies were performed.

weeks after infection in all the chickens, except one (chicken 9 in Table 3) which, however formed serum antibodies against OK10 virus (Table 2).



Fig 1 Tumour formation in a 6-week-old chicken injected intraperitoneally when newborn with 500 μ l of OK10 virus, titre 5×10^4 FFU/ml. Tumours can be seen in the mesenterium (M) of the gut and in the liver (L). There are no tumours in thymus (T) and Bursa Fabricius (B). The chicken had developed ascites.

Effect of OK10AV Infection In vivo

A group of seven chickens was infected with OK10AV. One bird was sacrificed at the age of 1½ months. No macroscopic tumours could be detected. Blood samples were taken at 3, 5 and 16 months. At three months, two out of six chickens had viraemia but no neutralizing serum antibodies. They were possibly tolerant. Later on they both developed antibodies. Two chickens were non-viraemic but had neutralizing serum antibodies, one of them became viraemic at 5 months and both were viraemic at 16 months. The last two chickens were viraemic and had neutralizing serum antibodies all the time.

The amount of neutralizing serum antibodies was dependent on virus expression. In chickens positive for virus in the buffy coat culture at the age of three months, a 40–90% neutralization was observed, while 100% neutralization was observed in chickens with no virus expression. At 5 and 16 months the neutralization of virus by serum ranged from 80–100%.

No difference was observed between leukotic and non-leukotic chickens as regards antibody formation.

After 1½ years, one of the chickens became ill and died. Tumours could be observed macroscopically in the thymus, skin, muscle, liver mesentery and heart. A tumour was also seen at the site where Bursa Fabricius is normally located. Microscopically malignant changes were observed in cervical, subcutaneous and mesenteric lymph nodes. Metastatic changes were observed in the heart, muscle, bone marrow and liver. The histologic changes were classified as leukosis (Fig. 3). Histology revealed tumour tissue in the spleen, lungs and kidneys.

Establishment of Continuous Cell Lines From Tumours Induced by OK10 Virus

In the second experiment (see Materials and Methods), continuous cell lines were established from tumours induced by OK10 virus from two different chickens. No tumours were found in a third chicken.

These cell lines were grown in culture for 5 months, and the cells had blast-like morphology. They grew in clumps in the suspension. The growth medium of these cultures, the titre of OK10V was about 10^4 focus-forming units per ml and that of OK10AV 10^7 interfering units per ml.

In the third experiment (see Materials and Methods), a continuous cell line was derived from the pooled bone marrows of two moribund OK10 virus-infected chickens. The birds had disseminated tumours at that time. This cell line has been growing continuously in the laboratory for two

results have been confirmed by time lapse photography (Oter Blom *et al.* unpublished). Infection of chick embryo cells with the associated virus OK10AV also causes a changed morphology (conversion) of chicken embryo fibroblasts (28). However it is not possible to exclude the possibility (11) that haematopoietic cells in chicken embryo cell cultures could be transformed.

OK10V was found in Bursa Fabricius two weeks after infection and later in spleen, liver and thymus. No malignant changes were found in Bursa Fabricius in chickens infected with the OK10 virus complex when they died at the age of 1-2 months, nor have tumours been described in Bursa Fabricius for any of the other acute leukaemia viruses.

In chickens infected with RAV 1 virus expression was also found at two weeks after infection in Bursa Fabricius (32). The development of a tumour in the site of Bursa Fabricius in one of the OK10AV infected chickens is in agreement with the observation that malignant leukotic changes develop in Bursa Fabricius in RAV 1 infected chickens, where transformed lymphoblasts can be found in lymphoid follicles in Bursa Fabricius eight weeks after infection (8, 27). This suggests that OK10AV is a lymphoid leukaemia virus like RAV 1.

In conclusion, the OK10 virus complex, composed of a rapidly oncogenic virus OK10V and an associated weakly oncogenic virus OK10AV may provide a good tool for studying the mechanism of oncogenesis *in vivo* and *in vitro* and the factors that regulate these processes.

Thanks due to Prof. Nils Oter Blom and Prof. Asa Valen for advice in this work and for critical review of the manuscript. Dr Per Andersson kindly performed the necropsies and offered advice in connection with histology of the sacrificed chickens. I am grateful to Mrs Anneli Kallio for excellent technical assistance.

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Fig 3 Liver metastasis in an OK10AV infected chicken which died 17 months after infection. Normal liver cells can be seen in the lower left-hand corner. Haematoxylin-eosin staining $\times 100$



years. In the growth medium, the focus-forming titre of OK10V was about 10^4 focus forming units per ml. The cells grew in clumps in the suspension, as shown in Fig. 4. They formed colonies in soft agar and their serum requirement was reduced; they grew well in 0.9% foetal calf serum.

DISCUSSION

The present experiments showed that OK10 virus, a newly isolated retrovirus, induced rapid oncogenesis in 2-4 day old chickens. The malignancy was invariably lethal within two months. The tumours could be detected after three weeks in the mesentery of the gut. At the same time large amounts of ascites had been formed.

When chicken were injected intravenously with OK10 virus, tumours were found also in the liver kidneys and testes, thus showing the wide spectrum of tumourigenicity caused by OK10 virus.

According to Coffin's classification (7), the OK10 virus complex belongs to the group of avian retroviruses which induce leukaemia and other malignancies within a month, and which also have another non-transforming associated virus in excess. The question of helper dependence of OK10V has not yet been solved.

The primary target cell in Ok10 virus oncogenesis is not known. The histology (kindly performed by Dr L. N. Payne Houghton Poultry Research Station, Huntingdon, England) of the mesenteric tumours resembles that of the MH 2 endothelioma described previously (6) with its large cells with big nucleoli and vacuolated cytoplasm. The surrounding lymphocytes might be a host reaction to the tumour cells or they might be malignant cells. The latter possibility is supported by the fact that continuous cell lines with blast like morphology were established from the tumours. These cell lines had properties of malignant cells, the cells formed colonies in soft agar cultures, and had a low serum dependence.

The OK10 virus has also other properties which suggest that it might belong, along with the MH 2 virus, to the acute leukaemia-carcinoma viruses which are known to cause many different kinds of tumours in the chicken (25).

Like the MC29 avian leukosis virus (4, 16, 17) and avian erythroblastosis virus (13) which also belong to the acute leukaemia-carcinoma viruses, OK10 virus transforms fibroblasts *in vitro*. These

Fig 4 Cells from a continuous cell line established from the bone marrows of moribund chickens (see Materials and Methods). Haematoxylin-eosin staining. $\times 188$

results have been confirmed by time lapse photography (Oter Blom *et al.* unpublished). Infection of chick embryo cells with the associated virus OK10AV also causes a changed morphology (conversion) of chicken embryo fibroblasts (28). However it is not possible to exclude the possibility (11) that haematopoietic cells in chicken embryo cell cultures could be transformed.

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Thanks due to Prof. Nils Oter-Blom and Prof. Axel Vaheri for advice in this work and for critical review of the manuscript, Dr. Per Andersson kindly performed the isotopes and offered advice in connection with histology of the sacrificed chickens. I am grateful to Mrs. Annelie Kellus for excellent technical assistance.

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PHAGOCYTOSIS OF ^{32}P LABELLED *E. COLI* BY HUMAN POLYMORPHONUCLEAR CELLS (PMN)

Adaptation of a Method

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Midtveit, T. & Melby, K. Phagocytosis of ^{32}P -labelled *E. coli* by human polymorphonuclear cells (PMN). Adaptation of a method. Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B 86: 193-199, 1978.

A system for the study of phagocytosis by human polymorphonuclear cells (PMN) is presented. The leucocytes are harvested from heparinized whole blood by the Bøyum method and transferred to glass tubes to yield glass-adherent monolayers of leucocytes, approximately 80% of which were PMN. A strain of *E. coli* labelled by ^{32}P serves as test organism.

Key words: Neutrophils, phagocytosis, *E. coli*.

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The process of phagocytosis can be divided into three main phases (18, 19), i.e. the process of recognition/adherence, the process of ingestion, and the process of killing and digestion of the ingested object by the phagocyte. Various methods have been published to study the process of phagocytosis. These can be divided into three groups: 1. Examination by microscopy of the leucocytes after incubation with the particles actually under study gives possibilities for estimating the process of ingestion (7, 13); 2. Incubation of living particles and leucocytes followed by determination of the number of living particles associated with the leucocytes and/or the number of particles left in the suspension (15), provides possibilities for evaluating the processes of ingestion and of intracellular killing of the ingested microorganisms; 3. Incubation of the leucocytes with radioactive-labelled particles provi-

des possibilities for evaluating the processes of ingestion and of elimination (5, 6, 11, 20, 22).

The latter method has been used for the study of the influence of drugs on polymorphonuclear cells obtained from rat peritoneal cavity after caecal stimulation (4, 10). The results of these studies raised the question of adaption of the method to human polymorphonuclear cells. The present report demonstrates that such adaption is possible.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Glassware. Experiments were performed in tissue culture tubes with a 30 cm² flat bottom. Tubes and silicone rubber stoppers were supplied by Becton Glass Inc, Vineland, N. J.

Cleaning of glassware and stoppers. The tissue culture tubes and stoppers were boiled in soapy water for 60 min, rinsed in running tap water for at least 2 hours,

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RESULTS

Phagocytosis. Experiments revealed that 10% serum was the optimum concentration which could be used. When the concentration of serum was above 10% no increase in phagocytosis was observed. The results of one typical experiment are shown in Fig. 1. Unless otherwise stated, 10% human serum was used in the subsequent studies.

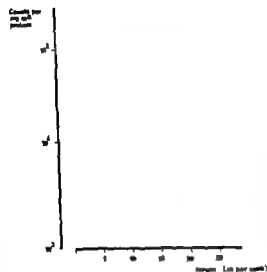


Fig. 1 Influence of serum concentration on phagocytosis. Aliquots of 2.5 ml of a logarithmic dilution of a suspension of ^{32}P -labelled *E. coli* in KRG with increasing concentrations of serum were incubated at 37°C in tubes containing monolayers of P3TN. A standard incubation time of 15 min was used. Uptake of ^{32}P by the P3TN was determined as outlined in Materials and Methods.

Experiments with various concentrations of bacteria revealed that the major increase in phagocytosis was observed when the concentration varied between 10^4 and 10^5 bacteria per ml. Consequently 10^5 bacteria per ml was chosen as the standard concentration of bacteria. (Typical experiments are shown in Fig. 2).

The influence of different times of incubation was studied, and representative experiments are shown in Fig. 3. Using an incubation period of 15 min, the uptake was usually eight to ten times higher with serum present during the phagocytosis than with either KRG or heat-inactivated serum.

Release of label to the medium from the labelled

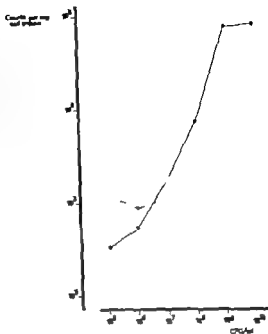


Fig. 2 Influence of number of bacteria on phagocytosis. Aliquots of 2.5 ml of a logarithmic dilution of a suspension of ^{32}P -labelled *E. coli* in KRG with 10% serum were incubated at 37°C in tubes containing monolayers of P3TN. A standard incubation period of 15 min was used. Uptake of ^{32}P by the P3TN was determined as outlined in Materials and Methods. Results from two different experiments are presented.

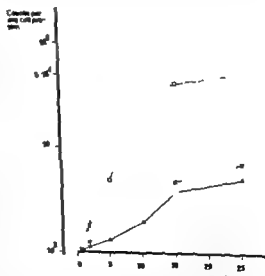


Fig. 3 Phagocytosis of ^{32}P -labelled *E. coli* suspensions in various media. Aliquots of 2.5 ml of *E. coli* labelled with ^{32}P 10^5 CFU/ml suspended in three different media, (1) KRG, (2) with 10% of serum and (3) KRG with 10% heat-inactivated serum, were incubated at 37°C for various periods of time determined as described in Materials and Methods. \square serum, \blacksquare heat inactivated serum, \triangle KRG.

rinsed in 10 changes of glass-distilled water and dried in hot air.

Sterilization. Glassware was sterilized with dry heat at 160° C for 90 min. Stoppers were sterilized in an autoclave at 121° C for 30 min.

Polymorphonuclear cells (PMN). Leucocytes were harvested from heparinized whole blood (5 l. U./ml) obtained by venipuncture of healthy blood donors. The maximum interval between collection of blood and beginning of the separation procedure was one hour. The leucocytes were separated as described by Bayum (3), i.e. the blood was layered carefully on top of an equal volume of a solution of two parts dextran T 500 (6% in aq. dest.) from Pharmacia, Stockholm, and one part Isopaque® (33.9% in distilled water) from Nygaard & Co. Oslo. The blood was left for sedimentation at 37° C until the red cells had settled at the bottom of the tube. The leucocyte-rich layer above was then removed carefully with a pipette and washed three times with chilled Krebs Ringer phosphate buffer enriched with 10 mM glucose (KRG). Centrifugation was performed in an International centrifuge running at $200 \times g$ at 4° C for 10 min. The concentration of leucocytes was determined in a Burkler cell chamber and adjusted to $5-8 \times 10^6$ leucocytes per ml.

Aliquots of 2.5 ml of this solution were transferred to tubes with or without coverslips and incubated at 37° C. One hour later the medium was decanted and the cells washed once with prewarmed KRG (37° C) by tilting the tubes 10 times.

Differential counts revealed that the average number of PMN was 82%. The remaining cells were mononuclear cells dominated by lymphocytes.

Serum. Serum was obtained by venipuncture of several healthy blood donors with different blood groups according to the ABO system. The sera were pooled and stored in small aliquots at -80° C until use.

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Culture technique. The medium was prepared according to Benacerraf *et al.* (1). The strain was cultivated in 50 ml of medium for 18 hours. Four ml of this culture was transferred to 200 ml of medium to which was added 1 mCi ^{32}P labelled orthophosphate. The bacterial growth was allowed to proceed for 200 minutes and then stopped by rapid cooling to 0° C. The number of viable bacteria, determined as colony forming units (CFU) after appropriate dilution and plating, was $10^9 (\pm 0.5 \log)$. The growth of the culture was followed by spectrophotometer: the optical density was 0.35 when read at 525 nm. All incubations were made aerobically in a shaker at 37° C.

Preparation of bacterial suspension. The bacteria were harvested by centrifugation at $6000 \times g$ for 10 minutes at 0° C in a Sorvall RC2B centrifuge. The bacterial suspension was washed three times with chilled KRG and the sediment was suspended in KRG in 1/10 of the original volume. The different suspensions were prepared

from this suspension and stored at 0° C until use. The storage time never exceeded 2 hours. After these manipulations, the number of viable bacteria was still within the limits determined at the end of the growth period, i.e. $10^9 \pm 0.5 \log$. The content of radioactivity in the medium was less than 1% of the total radioactivity in the suspension.

Phagocytosis experiments. Unless otherwise stated, a suspension containing 10^9 of ^{32}P -labelled *E. coli* per ml in KRG with and without 10% human serum was used. Aliquots of 2.5 ml of this suspension were added to tissue culture tubes containing rinsed monolayers of PMN and incubated at 37° C. The period of incubation was from the moment the tubes were placed in the incubator until they were removed. On termination of incubation the bacterial suspension was poured off and replaced by 2.5 ml chilled KRG in order to stop the phagocytosis. The cells were rinsed four times with chilled KRG and after complete drying at 37° C, 2 ml Lowry's alkaline copper solution (LACS) was added to each tube to dissolve the cells. Thereafter 0.2 ml was removed for determination of radioactivity and 0.5 ml for determination of cell protein content.

Release of label to the medium. Two types of experiments were performed.

1. Tubes containing 2.5 ml of the bacterial suspension but without PMN were incubated at 37° C for various periods of time. On termination of incubation the suspensions were poured quickly into chilled centrifuge tubes and centrifuged at $6000 \times g$ at 0° C for 10 minutes. 0.1 ml of the clear supernatant from each tube was removed for determination of radioactivity released to the medium from the bacteria. The release was expressed in counts per ml per minute.

2. Tubes containing 2.5 ml of the bacterial suspension and monolayers of PMN were incubated at 37° C for various periods of time. On termination of incubation the suspension was poured quickly into chilled centrifuge tubes. These were treated as described in the preceding paragraph.

Total radioactivity of the bacterial suspension. 0.1 ml of the bacterial suspension was mixed with 0.1 ml of LACS to dissolve the bacteria. Radioactivity was expressed as counts per min per ml of suspension.

Determination of radioactivity. Aliquots removed from the different suspensions were transferred directly into disposable scintillation vials to which was added 10 ml scintillation fluid. Radioactivity was determined in a Hewlett Packard liquid scintillation counter at 4° C.

Protein determination. The protein determinations were made according to the *Ojama Eagle* modification (14) of the method of Lowry *et al.* (9). The reference used was lyophilized human albumin, 96% purity from Sigma Chemical Comp. Mo dissolved in distilled water.

Determination of colony forming units (CFU). Logarithmic dilutions of the bacterial suspension were prepared, and aliquots of 0.1 ml were inoculated on lactose bromthymol blue agar plates. After overnight incubation at 37° C, the number of colonies was counted and taken as an expression of colony forming units.

RESULTS

Phagocytosis. Experiments revealed that 10% serum was the optimum concentration which could be used. When the concentration of serum was above 10% no increase in phagocytosis was observed. The results of one typical experiment are shown in Fig. 1. Unless otherwise stated, 10% human serum was used in the subsequent studies.

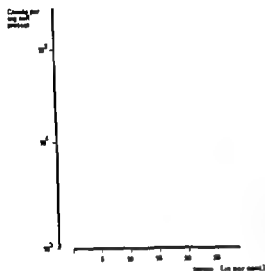


Fig. 1 Influence of serum concentration on phagocytosis. Aliquots of 2.5 ml of a logarithmic dilution of a suspension of ^{32}P -labelled *E. coli* in KRG with increasing concentrations of serum were incubated at 37° C in tubes containing monolayers of PMN. A standard incubation time of 15 min was used. Uptake of ^{32}P by the PMN was determined as outlined in Materials and Methods.

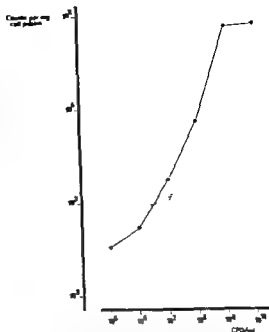


Fig. 2 Influence of number of bacteria on phagocytosis. Aliquots of 2.5 ml of a logarithmic dilution of a suspension of ^{32}P -labelled *E. coli* in KRG with 10% serum were incubated at 37° C in tubes containing monolayers of PMN. A standard incubation period of 15 min was used. Uptake of ^{32}P by the PMN was determined as outlined in Materials and Methods. Results from two different experiments are presented.

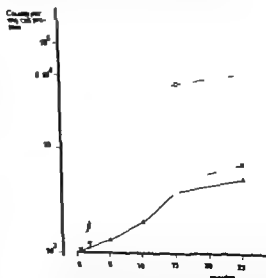


Fig. 3 Phagocytosis of ^{32}P -labelled *E. coli* suspended in various media. Aliquots of 2.5 ml of *E. coli* labelled with ^{32}P 10⁸ CFU/ml suspended in three different media, (1) KRG (2) with 10% of serum and (3) KRG with 10% heat-inactivated serum, were incubated at 37° C for various periods of time determined as described in Materials and Methods. □ serum, ■ heat inactivated serum, Δ KRG.

Experiments with various concentrations of bacteria revealed that the major increase in phagocytosis was observed when the concentration varied between 10⁴ and 10⁶ bacteria per ml. Consequently 10⁶ bacteria per ml was chosen as the standard concentration of bacteria. (Typical experiments are shown in Fig. 2).

The influence of different times of incubation was studied, and representative experiments are shown in Fig. 3. Using an incubation period of 15 min, the ingestion was usually eight to ten times higher with serum present during the phagocytosis than with either KRG or heat-inactivated serum.

Release of label to the medium from the labelled

rinsed in 10 changes of glass-distilled water and dried in hot air

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2. Tubes containing 2.5 ml of the bacterial suspension and monolayers of PMN were incubated at 37° C for various periods of time. On termination of incubation the suspension was poured quickly into chilled centrifuge tubes. These were treated as described in the preceding paragraph.

Total radioactivity of the bacterial suspension. 0.1 ml of the bacterial suspension was mixed with 0.1 ml of LACS to dissolve the bacteria. Radioactivity was expressed as counts per min per ml of suspension.

Determination of radioactivity. Aliquots removed from the different suspensions were transferred directly into disposable scintillation vials to which was added 10 ml scintillation fluid. Radioactivity was determined in a Hewlett Packard liquid scintillation counter at 4° C.

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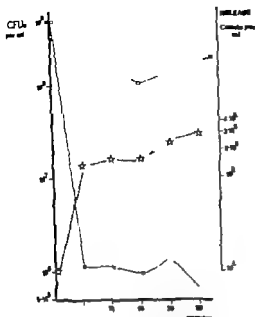


Fig. 7 Release of label from bacteria compared to the number of viable bacteria. Aliquots of 2.5 ml of a suspension of ^{32}P labelled *E. coli* in KRG with 10% serum or in KRG only were incubated at 37°C for various periods of time. Tubes in triplicate were used for each period of incubation. From one of the tubes, samples were removed immediately for determination of the number of CFU as expression of viable bacteria. Both tube dilution techniques and colony counting were used. The two other tubes were chilled to 0°C and used for determination of released ^{32}P as outlined in Materials and Methods. \square KRG \blacksquare serum \circ release.

presented in Fig. 6. No major deviation from the results obtained without PMN could be demonstrated.

Determination of CFU. In the presence of serum, the number of CFU was reduced by 2.5 log during the first 5 min (Fig. 7). No further reduction in the number of CFU was observed until after 25 min of incubation. No marked reduction in the number of CFU was observed when only KRG was present during the incubation period.

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| Tube no | Counts per mg cell protein | | |
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| 4 | 119 603 | | |
| 5 | 135 650 | | |
| 6 | 112 367 | | |
| 7 | 126 250 | | |
| 8 | 106 050 | | |
| 9 | 111 156 | | |
| 10 | 146 659 | | |
| 11 | 125 938 | | |
| 12 | 108 075 | | |
| 13 | 159 810 | | |
| 14 | 114 464 | | |
| 15 | 99 736 | | |
| 16 | 108 203 | | |
| 17 | 124 229 | | |
| | | SD 16 008 (13%) | SEM 3882 (3%) |

Aliquots of 2.5 ml of a suspension containing 10% serum and 10^8 ^{32}P -labelled *E. coli* were incubated for 15 minutes in glass culture tubes containing rinsed monolayers of PMN.

DISCUSSION

The basic method of Trippstad & Midtvedt (20) using rat PMN has been useful in the study of different factors of host defence mechanisms (21) and the influence of drugs on these mechanisms (4-10). The adaptation of this method to the human polymorphonuclear cells might therefore be of importance.

Systems involving glass adherent cells provide advantages in comparison to systems where the phagocytes and bacteria are together in suspension. The system gives the possibility of controlling the cell population under study. The contamination of red blood cells and dead cells can be reduced by the washing procedure.

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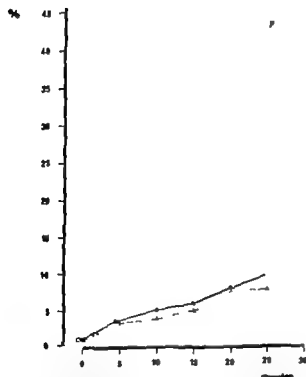


Fig 4 Release of label from bacteria incubated in various media. Aliquots of 2.5 ml of a suspension of ^{32}P labelled *E. coli* 10^9 /ml in three different media were incubated at 37° C for various periods of time. The media consisted of (1) KRG only (2) KRG enriched with 10% of serum and (3) KRG with 10% of heat inactivated serum (30 min at 56° C). The total radioactivity of the bacterial suspension was 974 000 cpm per ml. The results are presented as percentage radioactivity released compared with the total radioactivity in the suspension. ● KRG ■ serum, △ serum (heat inactivated).

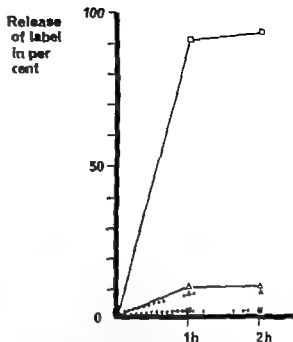


Fig 5 Release of label from ^{32}P labelled *E. coli* incubated in different media at different temperatures. See Fig. 2 for details. The release is expressed as percentage of the total activity of the bacterial suspension. □ serum 37° C, △ KRG 37° C, ■ serum 0° C, ○ KRG 0° C.

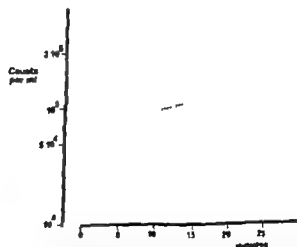


Fig 6 Release of label from *E. coli* labelled with ^{32}P incubated with different media and PMN. Aliquots of 2.5 ml containing 10^9 ^{32}P -labelled *E. coli*/ml suspended in two different media (1) KRG with 10% serum and (2) KRG only were incubated at 37° C in tubes with monolayers of PMN. After various periods of incubation, the release of label to the suspending medium was determined as described in Materials and Methods. Total radioactivity in the suspension was 840 000 cpm per ml. ■ serum, ▽ KRG.



Fig. 7 Release of label from bacteria compared to the number of viable bacteria. Aliquots of 2.5 ml of a suspension of ^{32}P -labelled *E. coli* in KRG with 10% serum or in KRG only were incubated at 37°C for various periods of time. Tubes in triplicate were used for each period of incubation. From one of the tubes, samples were removed immediately for determination of the number of CFU as expression of viable bacteria. Both tube dilution technique and colony counting were used. The two other tubes were chilled to 0°C and used for determination of released ^{32}P as outlined in Materials and Methods. \square KRG \blacksquare serum \circ release.

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Aliquots of 2.5 μl of a suspension containing 10% serum and 10^9 ^{32}P -labelled *E. coli* were incubated for 15 minutes in these culture tubes containing mixed monolayers of PMN.

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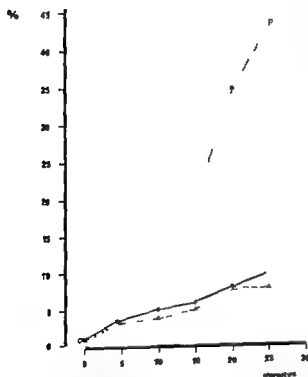


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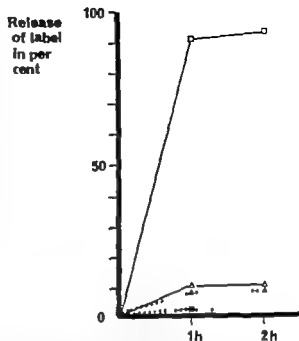


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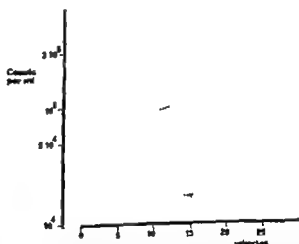


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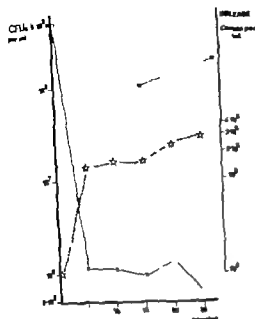


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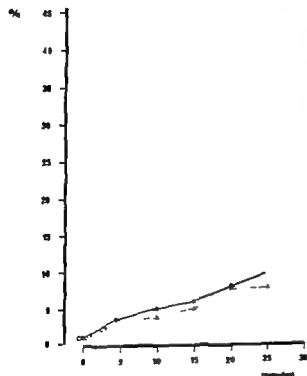


Fig. 4 Release of label from bacteria incubated in various media. Aliquots of 2.5 ml of a suspension of ^{32}P -labelled *E. coli* $10^8/\text{ml}$ in three different media were incubated at 37° C for various periods of time. The media consisted of (1) KRG only (2) KRG enriched with 10% of serum and (3) KRG with 10% of heat inactivated serum (30 min at 56° C). The total radioactivity of the bacterial suspension was 974 000 cpm per ml. The results are presented as percentage radioactivity released compared with the total radioactivity in the suspension: ● KRG, ■ serum, △ serum (heat inactivated).

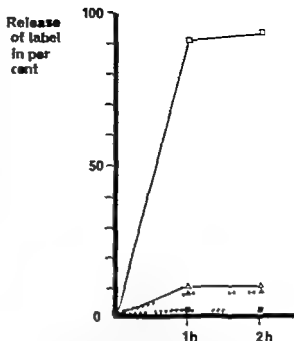


Fig. 5 Release of label from ^{32}P -labelled *E. coli* incubated in different media at different temperatures. See Fig. 2 for details. The release is expressed as percentage of the total activity of the bacterial suspension: □ serum 37° C, △ KRG 37° C, ■ serum 0° C, ▲ KRG 0° C.

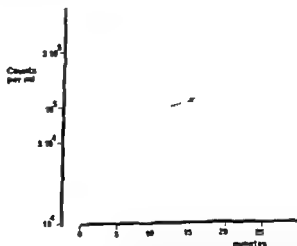


Fig. 6 Release of label from *E. coli* labelled with ^{32}P incubated with different media and PMN. Aliquots of 2.5 ml containing 10^8 ^{32}P labelled *E. coli*/ml suspended in two different media (1) KRG with 10% serum and (2) KRG only were incubated at 37° C in tubes with monolayers of PMN. After various periods of incubation, the release of label to the suspending medium was determined as described in Materials and Methods. Total radioactivity in the suspension was 840 000 cpm per ml: ■ serum, ▽ KRG.

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Spitznagel (16) and Spitznagel & Wilson (17) have demonstrated that the effect of fresh serum on bacteria is mediated mainly by heat labile factors on the cell membranes of the bacterium. The phosphate incorporated in the cytoplasm is easily released. However a major part of the phosphate is connected to cell wall structures and other macromolecular structures that are not so easily decomposed. They have also reported a release of label from ^{32}P labelled *E. coli* of 60% when using human serum and an incubation period of 1 hour at 37° C. Much less release was observed when sera from other mammals were used.

In our experiments the release of label occurs quickly in the presence of 10% fresh serum. This might be due to bacterial cell membrane damage and leakage of phosphate to the external medium, as shown by Spitznagel & Wilson (17). This phosphate might be reincorporated in other bacteria, but, as has been demonstrated by Trippstad & Midvedt (20) this only takes place to a very small extent. Our release studies (42% release by 25 minutes at 37° C with 10% fresh serum) are in accordance with the findings of Spitznagel & Wilson (17).

Trippstad & Midvedt (20) demonstrated a 25% loss of the label after a period of incubation on 25 minutes at 37° C in the presence of 10% rat serum. As a result of our studies, an incubation period of 15 min was chosen in order to avoid an external medium enriched with the label.

The bacteria were apparently quickly blocked in their ability to form colonies on agar plates. The decrease in colony forming capacity corresponded to the release of label from the bacteria. However the expression of the two parameters differed. After 15 min, only 1% of the bacteria initially present were apparently able to form colonies on agar plates, whereas 10% of the label had been released. The low number of CFU does not necessarily imply the death of a corresponding number of bacteria. Besides being lethal, serum could also cause a coating of the bacteria which might result in a depressed ability to yield colonies on agar plates. It is also likely that the bacteria rendered unable to form colonies on agar plates might still be labelled by ^{32}P connected to macromolecular structures, as suggested by the studies by Spitznagel (16), Spitznagel & Wilson (17) and Cohn (5) on the stability of radiolabelled *E. coli*.

The bacteria were presented to PMN and the rate of ingestion seems to be in accordance with the findings of other investigators. Thus, Foragren (6) using an oil emulsion as particle source for phagocytosis, reports that a period of ingestion of 10 min is sufficient. Lehrer (8) states that 7 min is an adequate time of exposure, and Munoz & Geisler

(12) that 15 min is a suitable period of incubation. These findings are in agreement with the results presented here and the observations published by Trippstad & Midvedt (20).

By the phagocytosis of bacteria, the PMN monolayer is enriched with bacterial protein. Thus, the possibility of obtaining a false low estimate of the ingestion is present. Previous studies on rat PMN have revealed that this factor could contribute to a maximum error of 7% in the protein determinations (20).

During the experimental series, large pools of serum have been used in order to keep the serum factors as constant as possible. When using the system in future experiments, it must be taken into consideration that sera may differ in their ability to influence the process of phagocytosis. Consequently comparison of effects should only be carried out within one experiment.

The aim of this investigation was to adapt a system which is functional on rat polymorphonuclear cells to human polymorphonuclear cells and it would appear that this adaptation is possible. Thus, a system is available that can be used for the study of host defence mechanisms, both humoral and cellular where the human PMN are involved. The influence of drugs on these factors may also be subjected to further study. Another important aspect of the experimental system is the fate of the ingested labelled particle.

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ASSESSMENT OF WOUND CONTAMINATION BY WOUND IRRIGATION

Experimental Investigations on Quantitative Recovery of Anaerobic and Aerobic Bacteria

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Scheibel, J. H., Lykkegaard Nielsen, M. & Lindenberg, S. Assessment of wound contamination by wound irrigation. Experimental investigations on quantitative recovery of anaerobic and aerobic bacteria. *Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B* 86: 201-205, 1978.

The quantitative recovery of *E. coli*, *S. faecalis* and *B. fragilis* from operative abdominal wounds was investigated in pigs in an experimental model suitable for statistical calculations. Wounds were contaminated in groups of ten with different numbers of either a single bacterial species or a mixture of two species. The wound was irrigated with saline 20 minutes after contamination. Significant differences in recovery were found between the bacterial species investigated. Expressed as percentage of the number of bacteria used for contamination, the recovery for a given species was rather low, but it was constant and independent of the degree of contamination. The investigation did not suggest any principle differences in the recovery of anaerobic and aerobic bacteria. The clinical applicability of the method is not yet clarified.

Key words: Wound contamination, wound irrigation, bacteriological sampling.

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The frequency of post-operative wound infection has not been significantly reduced, despite considerable success in decreasing the exogenous sources of bacteria. The main origin of bacteria found in post-operative incisional abscesses is endogenous, i.e. bacteria from the organs operated on, for example the gastro-intestinal or the biliary tract. To combat post-operative wound infection, it is desirable to be able to evaluate to what degree different surgical procedures contribute to wound contamination, and to what degree different devices can protect the wound from contamination.

Several methods (irrigation/rinse techniques or contact methods in different modifications) have been used to determine the number of bacteria left in the wound at closure. The quantitative bacterial recovery in these methods has been evaluated only as bacterial transfer from artificial surfaces (1-6). It

seems quite hazardous to draw conclusions as to the complicated structure of a wound surface, from artificial surfaces like an agar surface (6) or china salad dishes (1).

The wound irrigation method is easy to perform and involves the total surface of the wound. The aim of the present study was to determine the quantitative bacterial recovery from experimental wounds contaminated with known numbers of bacteria, to investigate whether different bacterial species showed variations in recovery and to investigate whether the method was suitable for the recovery of anaerobic bacteria.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Experimental animals, anaesthesia, surgical procedures and preparation of counts. Pigs of the Danish landrace weighing 40 kg were used in all experiments. Anaesthesia was performed with halothane after tracheal intuba-

tion. After shaving the entire abdomen, the skin was disinfected three times with 2.5 per cent iodine in 70 per cent alcohol. Draping was made with sterile drapes and Steridrape® Ten to twelve wounds, all 10 cm in length, were made as follows: the skin, the subcutaneous layer and the fascia covering the abdominal muscles were cut, and finally the fascia was closed with interrupted silk sutures. The wounds prepared in this investigation thus imitated a stage of closure of the abdominal wall in human laparotomies (i.e. the stage just before closing the subcutaneous layer and the skin) apart from the fact that the abdominal muscles had not been divided and the peritoneum had not been opened.

Contamination of wounds. In all but one experiment, contamination of each wound was made with 0.5 ml of the bacterial suspension in question. This volume was spread evenly over the sides and the base of the wound with a tiny syringe. The wound was left untouched for 20 minutes before irrigation was performed.

In one experiment, bacterial recovery from diffusely contaminated wounds was compared with bacterial recovery from wounds with localized contamination (cf Table 2). In this experiment, 10 wounds were allocated at random for diffuse or localized contamination, and the diffuse contamination was performed with 0.5 ml bacterial suspension as described above. The localized contamination was performed by depositing the same number of bacteria in a volume of 0.05 ml at one point in the wound. After 20 minutes, irrigation was carried out without knowledge of which wounds were contaminated in the diffuse or the localized manner.

Irrigation of wounds. In all but one experiment, the wounds were irrigated with 5 ml saline for 30 seconds using a sterile plastic spatula, and efforts were made to irrigate all wounds in the same manner. After irrigation, the saline was aspirated in a syringe and immediately examined bacteriologically as described below. In one experiment, 12 wounds were allocated at random for either 30 or 60 seconds of irrigation (cf Table 1).

Test organisms. *E. coli* (02:H4), *B. fragilis* (ss. *fragilis*) and *S. faecalis* all isolated from clinical specimens.

Media. *E. coli* was grown on an agar medium containing Orthana peptone 1% Oxoid yeast extract 0.5%

NaCl 0.5% sodium thiosulphate 0.1% bromthymol blue 0.01% glucose 0.04% lactose 0.9% and Maranil® 0.005%. Maranil® is a detergent which prevents growth of gram positive organisms. *B. fragilis* was grown on prereduced nutrient agar medium containing 10% defibrinated horse blood with an admixture of 400 µg per ml kanamycin which completely prevented growth of *E. coli*. *S. faecalis* was grown on nutrient agar containing 10% defibrinated horse blood and 0.04% potassium tellurite which prevented growth of *E. coli*.

Pilot studies were performed to ensure that the selective media did not repress growth of the bacterial species in question to any degree. Except for the kanamycin content, the media were standard media manufactured by Statens Seruminstitut, Copenhagen, and used in routine bacteriological work. The media were dispensed in plastic petri dishes with a diameter of 9 cm.

Bacterial inocula used for contamination. For each experiment, broth was inoculated from appropriate stock culture and incubated at 35 °C for 18 h. In the case of *B. fragilis*, prereduced broth was used and incubation performed in a Gas-pak® jar.

The bacterial suspensions used for inoculating the wounds were produced by diluting the fully-grown culture in broth. At the same time as the wounds were contaminated, the concentration of the suspension in use was determined by floating the relevant agar plates with one-half ml of the suspension and one-half ml of ten-fold dilutions. Four plates were used for each dilution. The plates were incubated at 35 °C for 24 h. For *B. fragilis*, incubation was performed in Gas-pak® jars for 48 h. The aim was to obtain plates containing 30-500 colonies per counting.

Irrigation fluid (Rinse). Within five minutes after irrigating a wound one-half ml of the fluid and one-half ml of ten-fold dilutions in broth were floated in duplicate onto the relevant agar plates. Incubation and counting were performed as described above (cf bacterial inocula used for contamination).

Statistical calculations. Non-parametrical statistical methods were used, all comparisons being made by means of Wilcoxon's test.

TABLE 1 Influence of Different Periods of Irrigation on Bacterial Recovery from Subcutaneous Wounds Contaminated With *E. coli*. Six Wounds Were Examined in Each of the Two Groups. All Wounds Were Irrigated with 5 ml Saline

| Number of bacteria inoculated | Period of irrigation (seconds) | Bacterial recovery after irrigation | |
|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|---|---|
| | | Bacteria per 5 ml irrigation fluid (median and range) | Percentage of inoculated no. of bacteria (median and range) |
| 6 × 10 ³ | 30 | 90 (40-160) | 1.5 (0.6-2.7) |
| 6 × 10 ³ | 60 | 70 (25-270) | 1.2 (0.4-4.5) |

TABLE 2. Bacterial Recovery from Subcutaneous Wounds Contaminated in Two Different Ways with the Same Number of *E. coli*. Five Wounds Were Examined in Each of the Two Groups and All Wounds Were Irrigated with 5 ml Saline for 30 Seconds

| Mode of contaminating the wound | No. of bacteria inoculated | Bacterial recovery after irrigation | |
|---|----------------------------|--|---|
| | | Bacteria per 5 ml irrigation fluid (median and range) | Percentage of inoculated no. of bacteria (median and range) |
| 0.5 ml bacterial suspension distributed evenly throughout the wound | 5×10^3 | 1.2×10^4 (2.6×10^3 – 1.3×10^4) | 2.3 (0.5–2.6) |
| 0.5 ml bacterial suspension deposited at one point of the wound | 5×10^3 | 9.1×10^3 (1.1×10^3 – 1.6×10^4) | 1.8 (0.2–3.2) |

RESULTS

Bacterial recovery after different periods of irrigation can be seen in Table 1. No significant difference was found between wounds rinsed for 30 and 60 seconds ($p > 0.10$). It will be seen from Table 2 that similar bacterial recoveries were obtained from diffusely contaminated wounds and from wounds with focal contamination ($p > 0.10$).

TABLE 3. Bacterial Recovery from Subcutaneous Wounds after Contamination of the Wounds with Different Doses of *E. coli* and Irrigation for 30 Seconds with 5 ml Saline. Ten Wounds Were Examined for Each Dose of *E. coli*

| Number of bacteria inoculated | Bacterial recovery after irrigation | |
|-------------------------------|--|---|
| | Bacteria per 5 ml irrigation fluid (median and range) | Percentage of inoculated no. of bacteria (median and range) |
| 0 | 0 (0–0) | 0 (0–0) |
| 10^1 | 0 (0–0) | 0 (0–0) |
| 1×10^2 | 0 (0–0) | 0 (0–0) |
| 9×10^2 | 17 (5–35) | 1.9 (0.6–3.9) |
| 7×10^3 | 93 (10–520) | 1.3 (0.1–7.4) |
| 4×10^4 | 3.8×10^3 (2.0×10^3 – 1.3×10^4) | 0.6 (0.3–2.2) |
| 5×10^7 | 5.0×10^3 (2.0×10^3 – 2.3×10^4) | 1.0 (0.4–4.6) |

Table 3 shows the bacterial recovery after irrigation of wounds contaminated with an increasing number of *E. coli*. When less than 10^2 bacteria were used for contamination, bacteria were never recovered from the rinsing fluid. In the case of wounds contaminated with 9×10^2 to 5×10^7 bacteria, the median percentage of inoculated bacteria recovered was surprisingly constant, varying between 0.6 and 1.9. However, within each set of experiments including 10 wounds contaminated with the same number of bacteria, a considerable variation in bacterial recovery was found, the difference in percentage recovery being as high as 70-fold in one of the experiments.

Bacterial recovery from wounds contaminated with increasing numbers of *B. fragilis* can be seen in

TABLE 4. Bacterial Recovery from Subcutaneous Wounds after Contamination of the Wounds with Different Doses of *B. fragilis* and Irrigation for 30 Seconds with 5 ml Saline. Ten Wounds Were Examined for Each Dose of *B. fragilis*

| Number of bacteria inoculated | Bacterial recovery after irrigation | |
|-------------------------------|--|---|
| | Bacteria per 5 ml irrigation fluid (median and range) | Percentage of inoculated no. of bacteria (median and range) |
| 1×10^3 | 130 (20–305) | 11.8 (1.8–27.7) |
| 1.2×10^4 | 1.6×10^3 (8.0×10^2 – 3.6×10^3) | 13.3 (6.7–30.0) |
| 1.2×10^6 | 1.5×10^3 (0.7×10^3 – 3.6×10^3) | 12.5 (5.8–30.0) |

TABLE 5 *Bacterial Recovery from Subcutaneous Wounds after Contamination with Different Doses of E. coli or E. coli + B. fragilis and Irrigation of the Wounds for 30 Seconds with 5 ml Saline Six Wounds Were Examined for Each Dose of E. coli or E. coli + B. fragilis*

| Number of bacteria inoculated | | Bacterial recovery after irrigation as percentage of inoculated number (median and range) | |
|-------------------------------|--------------------|---|---------------------|
| <i>E. coli</i> | <i>B. fragilis</i> | <i>E. coli</i> | <i>B. fragilis</i> |
| 3.0×10^3 | 7.5×10^3 | 4.4 (1.9-6.9) | 24.4 (6.3-32.0) |
| 3.0×10^3 | | 5.5 (4.0-7.4) | |
| 3.0×10^5 | 5.4×10^5 | 6.6 (4.5-8.9) | 33.1 (26.6-45.7) |
| 3.0×10^5 | | 3.0 (1.2-5.2) | |

Table 4 The median percentage of the number of inoculated bacteria recovered from the rinsing fluid was constant at about 12 per cent in all three sets of experiments, independent of the degree of contamination investigated. As in the experiments with *E. coli* (Table 3), this constant recovery expressed as a median percentage of the inoculum concealed a considerable variation within each set of experiments including 10 wounds.

TABLE 6 *Bacterial Recovery from Subcutaneous Wounds after Contamination with Different Doses of E. coli + S. faecalis and Irrigation of the Wounds for 30 Seconds with 5 ml Saline Ten Wounds Were Examined for Each Dose of E. coli + S. faecalis*

| Number of bacteria inoculated | | Bacterial recovery after irrigation as percentage of inoculated number (median and range) | |
|-------------------------------|--------------------|---|---------------------|
| <i>E. coli</i> | <i>S. faecalis</i> | <i>E. coli</i> | <i>S. faecalis</i> |
| 3.4×10^3 | 2.7×10^3 | 4.6 (1.8-8.2) | 30.9 (8.1-55.4) |
| 3.2×10^5 | 2.7×10^5 | 5.1 (1.0-7.1) | 37.3 (15.1-63.0) |

To elucidate whether the difference in bacterial recovery of *E. coli* and *B. fragilis* (Tables 3 and 4) was real, or a result of day-to-day and animal-to-animal variation, the experiment outlined in Table 5 was carried out. It will be seen that a significantly better recovery was obtained with *B. fragilis* than with *E. coli* both when the wounds were contaminated with 10^3 and with 10^5 bacteria ($p < 0.001$ for both comparisons).

Table 6 shows that *E. coli* and *S. faecalis* were recovered at different rates after rinsing, both when the wounds were contaminated with 10^3 and with 10^5 bacteria ($p < 0.001$ for both comparisons).

DISCUSSION

The present investigation revealed that bacterial recovery from subcutaneous wounds after irrigation was surprisingly low and that there were significant differences in bacterial recovery between different bacterial species. The structure of the wounds (i.e. the abdominal muscles were not divided and the peritoneum was not opened (cf methods)) prevented any loss of inoculated bacteria or rinsing fluid from the wounds. Bacterial adhesion to the wound surface (i.e. the subcutaneous layer and the fascia including fascial sutures at the base of the wound) is a likely explanation for the rather low bacterial recovery. Bacterial adhesion to the wound surface presumably depends on the surface properties of the bacterial species in question. Different surface properties might explain the significant difference in bacterial recovery between *E. coli*, *B. fragilis* and *S. faecalis*. It was remarkable, and to some degree unexplainable, that the bacterial recovery within each of four experiments (cf Tables 3, 4, 5 and 6) was rather constant for a given bacterial species when the recovery was expressed as percentage of the number of bacteria used for contamination. This was true even when the number of bacteria used for contamination ranged from 9×10^2 to 5×10^5 (cf Table 3). If it is true that adhesion of bacteria to the wound surface is responsible for the decreased bacterial recovery, this adhesion was not influenced by different periods of irrigation (cf Table 1). Factors other than adhesion could theoretically decrease the bacterial recovery. In the present experimental model, only 20 minutes elapsed from contamination of the wound to time of rinsing and this short interval does not favour the conception that phagocytosis of bacteria or invasion of bacteria into deeper layers of the wound plays any major role (9). The possible importance of other antibacterial factors in the wound (i.e. from wound tissue, from wound

exudate and from minor amounts of blood in the wound) is not elucidated in the present experimental model, nor is it elucidated whether the viable count method has concealed bacterial agglutination in the rinsing fluid. Since the irrigation fluid was plated within 5 minutes, the killing effect of saline can be disregarded (10).

With the present experimental model, it was possible to demonstrate marked differences in bacterial recovery between *E. coli*, *B. fragilis* and *S. faecalis*. However, it will be seen from Tables 3, 4 and 6, that there is large variation within any single experiment involving 10 wounds (cf. median and range in the tables), despite efforts to produce uniform wounds, to contaminate the wounds in exactly the same manner and to irrigate all wounds in the same way for the same period of time. Tables 1 and 2 show that small differences in the distribution of the inoculum used for contamination or in the time of irrigation hardly contribute to the variation within a single experiment, and the bacteriological technique is hardly responsible for this variation (cf. methods).

The question as to whether the wound irrigation method is suitable for clinical use is, in our opinion, not yet settled, despite the fact that the method has been used by several investigators in different modifications for quantitative determination of wound contamination (2, 3, 4, 7, 8). The present investigation seems to indicate that bacterial contamination with less than approx. 10^2 *E. coli* remains undetected. We do not know yet whether this slower limit is true for most bacterial species, nor do we know whether or not this slower limit is crucial, since the number of bacteria necessary for establishing wound infection is still under discussion (5). The species-dependent recovery found in the present study is not easy to explain, and further investigations are necessary to elucidate whether it invalidates the method for clinical use. Experimental comparisons of different methods (i.e. irrigation methods and contact methods such as the velvet pad

(6)) would be desirable in order to determine the method of choice for assessment of contamination of operation wounds.

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TABLE 5 *Bacterial Recovery from Subcutaneous Wounds after Contamination with Different Doses of E. coli or E. coli + B. fragilis and Irrigation of the Wounds for 30 Seconds with 5 ml Saline Six Wounds Were Examined for Each Dose of E. coli or E. coli + B. fragilis*

| Number of bacteria inoculated | | Bacterial recovery after irrigation as percentage of inoculated number (median and range) | |
|-------------------------------|--------------------|---|---------------------|
| <i>E. coli</i> | <i>B. fragilis</i> | <i>E. coli</i> | <i>B. fragilis</i> |
| 3.0×10^3 | 7.5×10^3 | 4.4 (1.9-6.9) | 24.4 (6.3-32.0) |
| 3.0×10^3 | | 5.5 (4.0-7.4) | |
| 3.0×10^5 | 5.4×10^5 | 6.6 (4.5-8.9) | 33.1 (26.6-45.7) |
| 3.0×10^5 | | 3.0 (1.2-5.2) | |

Table 4 The median percentage of the number of inoculated bacteria recovered from the rinsing fluid was constant at about 12 per cent in all three sets of experiments, independent of the degree of contamination investigated. As in the experiments with *E. coli* (Table 3), this constant recovery expressed as a median percentage of the inoculum concealed a considerable variation within each set of experiments including 10 wounds.

TABLE 6 *Bacterial Recovery from Subcutaneous Wounds after Contamination with Different Doses of E. coli + S. faecalis and Irrigation of the Wounds for 30 Seconds with 5 ml Saline Ten Wounds Were Examined for Each Dose of E. coli + S. faecalis*

| Number of bacteria inoculated | | Bacterial recovery after irrigation as percentage of inoculated number (median and range) | |
|-------------------------------|--------------------|---|---------------------|
| <i>E. coli</i> | <i>S. faecalis</i> | <i>E. coli</i> | <i>S. faecalis</i> |
| 3.4×10^3 | 2.7×10^3 | 4.6 (1.8-8.2) | 30.9 (8.1-55.4) |
| 3.2×10^5 | 2.7×10^5 | 5.1 (1.0-7.1) | 37.3 (15.1-63.0) |

To elucidate whether the difference in bacterial recovery of *E. coli* and *B. fragilis* (Tables 3 and 4) was real, or a result of day-to-day and animal-to-animal variation, the experiment outlined in Table 5 was carried out. It will be seen that a significantly better recovery was obtained with *B. fragilis* than with *E. coli* both when the wounds were contaminated with 10^3 and with 10^5 bacteria ($p < 0.001$ for both comparisons).

Table 6 shows that *E. coli* and *S. faecalis* were recovered at different rates after rinsing, both when the wounds were contaminated with 10^3 and with 10^5 bacteria ($p < 0.001$ for both comparisons).

DISCUSSION

The present investigation revealed that bacterial recovery from subcutaneous wounds after irrigation was surprisingly low, and that there were significant differences in bacterial recovery between different bacterial species. The structure of the wounds (i.e. the abdominal muscles were not divided and the peritoneum was not opened (cf. methods)) prevented any loss of inoculated bacteria or rinsing fluid from the wounds. Bacterial adhesion to the wound surface (i.e. the subcutaneous layer and the fascia including fascial sutures in the base of the wound) is a likely explanation for the rather low bacterial recovery. Bacterial adhesion to the wound surface presumably depends on the surface properties of the bacterial species in question. Different surface properties might explain the significant difference in bacterial recovery between *E. coli*, *B. fragilis* and *S. faecalis*. It was remarkable, and to some degree unexplainable, that the bacterial recovery within each of four experiments (cf. Tables 3, 4, 5 and 6) was rather constant for a given bacterial species when the recovery was expressed as percentage of the number of bacteria used for contamination. This was true even when the number of bacteria used for contamination ranged from 9×10^2 to 5×10^7 (cf. Table 3). If it is true that adhesion of bacteria to the wound surface is responsible for the decreased bacterial recovery, this adhesion was not influenced by different periods of irrigation (cf. Table 1). Factors other than adhesion could, theoretically, decrease the bacterial recovery. In the present experimental model, only 20 minutes elapsed from contamination of the wound to time of rinsing, and this short interval does not favour the conception that phagocytosis of bacteria or invasion of bacteria into deeper layers of the wound plays any major role (9). The possible importance of other antibacterial factors in the wound (i.e. from wound tissue, from wound

ANALYSIS OF AMINES AND OTHER BACTERIAL PRODUCTS BY HEAD-SPACE GAS CHROMATOGRAPHY

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Larsson, L., Mårdh, P.-A. & Odham, G. Analysis of amines and other bacterial products by head-space gas chromatography. *Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B* 86: 207-213 1978.

A gas chromatographic (GC) head-space technique is presented, which is suitable for the analysis of volatile products in bacterial broth cultures. This is exemplified by studies on *Clostridium* species, *Klebsiella pneumoniae* and *Proteus mirabilis*. The media were acidified or made alkaline and after heating, samples of the gas phase above the media were directly injected into the gas chromatograph. A gas chromatograph equipped with dual columns and flame ionization detectors was used, employing Porapak Q and Chromosorb 103 as stationary phases. Analysis of acidified media, using Porapak Q, gave chromatograms representing acidic and neutral volatile products, while when analysing samples made alkaline, using Chromosorb 103 alkaline and neutral compounds could be detected. Interest was particularly concentrated on the analysis of bacterial amines. *P. mirabilis* was found to produce isobutyramine and isopentylamine which were identified by mass spectrometry and GC retention times. *C. septicum* produced ethylamine. The GC head-space technique described constitutes a basis for rapid identification of microorganisms. It is adaptable for use on a routine basis in the clinical microbiological laboratory.

Key words: Gas chromatography, head-space analysis, bacteria.

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Gas chromatographic (GC) analysis of volatile microbial products can be used as an aid in the differential diagnosis of microorganisms. The GC techniques usually employed include extraction of liquid culture media using an organic solvent, followed by analysis of the organic phase. Direct injection of broth cultures into the gas chromatograph (2, 20), and analysis by GC of the head-space gas above the media (1, 8, 10, 12, 17, 18, 19), have also been used. Head-space GC was recently reported to be of use in the identification of anaerobes and in diagnosis of urinary tract pathogens (13, 14, 17).

In GC analysis of microorganisms, acidic and neutral products have generally been studied. Detection of amines may however also prove valuable for species differentiation, but has hitherto

usually involved rather time-consuming derivatization procedures (3-7).

The aim of the present study was to develop a head-space GC technique allowing analysis of acidic, neutral and alkaline volatile products of microorganisms grown in broth media. The potential capacity of the technique for the rapid identification of microorganisms is discussed.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Organisms

One freshly isolated strain of *Clostridium septicum*, two strains of *Klebsiella pneumoniae* and four strains of *Proteus mirabilis* were used.

Media and Culture Techniques

C. septicum was stored in Caspary jars at 37°C before culturing under anaerobic conditions in chopped-meat

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(CMG) and peptone-yeast extract (PYG) medium, each supplemented with 1% (w/v) of glucose. The media were prepared as recommended elsewhere (15). *K. pneumoniae* and *P. mirabilis* were cultured in Trypticase soy broth (TSB) (Oxoid), and in CMG (15) without cysteine hydrochloride. All strains studied were incubated in 5 ml of medium at 37°C for 24 hours before use. Each strain was cultured and analysed three times. For comparison, sterile media were also incubated under the same conditions as for the inoculated media, and further analysed.

Standard Solutions

A standard solution was prepared by adding 20 µl each of ethanol, *n*-propanol, *n*-butanol and *n*-amyl alcohol, 0.5 ml each of acetic, propionic, *n*-butyric, *n*-valeric, isocaproic and *n*-caproic acid and 0.25 ml each of isobutyric and isovaleric acid to 500 ml of distilled water. Another standard solution was prepared by adding 20 µl each of the above-mentioned alcohols and of ethylamine, *n*-propylamine and *n*-butylamine, and 40 µl each of *n*-pentylamine and *n*-hexylamine to 500 ml of distilled water. Three other solutions were prepared by adding 1 ml each of octanoic and nonanoic acid, 50 µl each of octanol and decanol, and 50 µl each of decylamine and dodecylamine to 500 ml of distilled water respectively. The standard chemicals used had a minimum purity of 97% (w/v) except ethylamine which was available in a 68% (w/v in water) concentration (Merck).

Preparation of Samples for Head-Space GC Analysis

Two ml of sterile medium, 2 ml inoculated medium and 2 ml of the standard solution containing only alcohols, were transferred to two 10 ml ampoules containing 1.5 g of anhydrous Na₂SO₄. To one of the ampoules were added 5 drops (approximately 0.1 ml) of diluted H₂SO₄ (1/3 v/v in water) and to the other 4 pellets of solid NaOH (analytical grade) (approximately 0.4 g). Standard solutions containing acids were acidified, and those containing amines made alkaline prior to analysis. The samples were held at 75°C. Two ml of the vapour above the aqueous samples were collected with a gas-tight syringe (Hamilton 1005 LT) and injected into the gas chromatograph. The sealing and heating procedures used were those described previously (17).

Gas Chromatographic Equipment and Test Conditions

A Varian gas chromatograph equipped with dual flame ionization detectors (model 2440) was used. Two 2 m glass columns with internal diameters (i.d.) of 2 mm one packed with Chromosorb 103 80/100 mesh (Johns-Manville, USA) and one with Porapak Q 80/100 mesh (Waters Ass. USA) were employed. The injector and detector temperatures were held at 245°C and the nitrogen carrier gas flow was 25 ml/min. The Chromosorb 103 column was usually operated at 170°C and the Porapak Q column at 210°C. However when analysing the acids, alcohols, and amines of higher molecular weights, the temperature of both columns was raised to 240°C. The latter compounds were also analysed by

injection of 0.5 µl of the pure chemicals: alkaline compounds were injected into the Chromosorb 103 column and acidic on Porapak Q while the neutral compounds were analysed on both stationary phases.

Alcohols and amines were also analysed on a Hewlett-Packard, model 5750 gas chromatograph. Here a 2 m stainless steel column (i.d. 2 mm) was used, employing a stationary phase of 10% of Carbowax 20M supplemented with 2% (w/w) of KOH on Chromosorb W AW DMCS 80/100 mesh. The temperature of injector and detector was 170°C the column temperature 60°C and the nitrogen carrier gas flow 30 ml/min.

The acidified samples were regularly analysed on Porapak Q and the alkaline ones on Chromosorb 103. However in some experiments, acidified samples were analysed on the Chromosorb 103 phase. Compounds present in vapours above media made alkaline, but absent in vapours above the acidified samples, were considered to represent bacterial amines. These compounds were identified by mass spectrometry and by their gas chromatographic retention times.

Mass Spectrometry

The spectra were run on a Varian Mat, model 112 GC MS combination. The GC column consisted of a 2 m glass tube (i.d. 2 mm) packed with Chromosorb 103 80/100 mesh. The GC conditions were as mentioned above. The ion source was held at 250°C and the electron energy was 80 eV.

RESULTS

Standard Solutions

Fig. 1 shows chromatograms representing the head-space atmosphere above the standard solutions containing acids and alcohols, and amines and alcohols. When analysing the vapour above acidic samples on Porapak Q acids and alcohols were detected (Fig. 1A). However propionic acid and *n*-butanol did not separate under the prevailing conditions. When employing Chromosorb 103 the alkaline samples gave chromatograms representing alcohols and amines (Fig. 1B). When acidic samples were analysed on Chromosorb 103 only alcohols were detected, because acids are retained on the column (Fig. 1C). Analysis of the alkaline standard solution on Chromosorb 103 after an injection of vapour containing acids yielded very small amine peaks while the sizes of the alcohol peaks were unaffected by injection of acids. This was presumably because most of the amines were adsorbed on the column forming salts. However larger amine peaks were found after repeated injections of amine-containing vapours.

Chromatograms obtained from the analysis of the alkaline standard solution of alcohols and amines, employing KOH-supplemented Carbowax 20M as stationary phase, showed a satisfactory separation of the compounds studied (Fig. 1D).

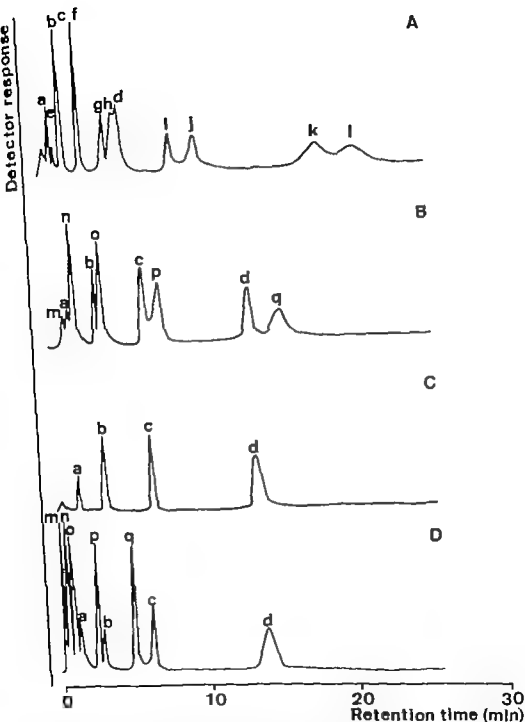


Fig. 1. Chromatograms, obtained by gas chromatographic analysis of the head-space vapour above standard solutions containing alcohols and fatty acids (A and C) and alcohols and amines (B and D), using Poropak Q (A), Chromosorb 103 (B and C) and KOH-supplemented Carbowax 20M (D) as stationary phase. Symbols: a = ethanol, b = *n*-propanol, c = *n*-butanol, d = *n*-hexyl alcohol, e = acetic acid, f = propionic acid, g = isobutyric acid, h = *n*-butyric acid, i = isovaleric acid, j = *n*-valeric acid, k = isocaproic acid, l = *n*-caproic acid, m = ethylamine, n = *n*-propylamine, o = *n*-butylamine, p = *n*-pentylamine and q = *n*-hexylamine.

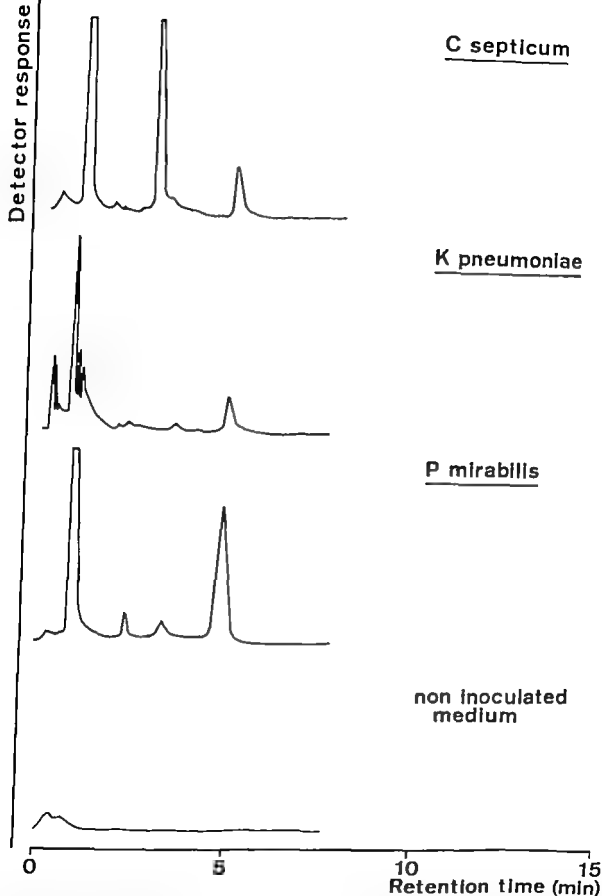


Fig. 2. Chromatograms, obtained by gas chromatographic analysis of the head-space vapour above acidified chopped-meat-glucose (CMG) medium inoculated with *Clostridium septicum*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae* and *Proteus mirabilis*, using Porapak Q as stationary phase. For comparison, a chromatogram from a sample of the gas phase above sterile CMG is shown.

Alcohols, Acids and Amines of Higher Molecular Weight

From the GC stationary phases used, i.e. Chromosorb 103 and Porapak Q, it was possible to detect octanol, nonanoic acid and dodecylamine at reasonably short retention times when the pure compounds were injected into the gas chromatograph at a column temperature of 240°C. When employing the head-space GC technique, octanol, octanoic acid and decylamine were the compounds of highest molecular weight that could be detected using a sample temperature of 75°C.

Analysis Using Porapak Q

Chromatograms obtained when analysing acidified CMG (pH 1.0-1.3) that had been inoculated with the three bacterial species studied, and of non-inoculated CMG are shown in Fig. 2. The atmosphere above the heated broth cultures contained appreciable amounts of volatiles which could be detected by the flame ionization detector while the non-inoculated medium gave rise only to very small peaks. The chromatographic elution profiles for the three organisms differed considerably (Fig. 2). Also chromatograms obtained from different analyses of

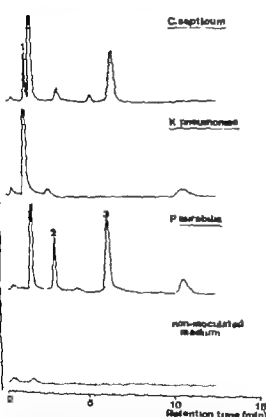


Fig. 3 Chromatograms, obtained by gas chromatographic analysis of the head-space vapour above chopped-meat-glucose (CMG) medium made alkaline and inoculated with *Clostridium septicum*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae* and *Proteus mirabilis*, using Chromosorb 103 as stationary phase. For comparison, a chromatogram representing sterile CMG is also shown. Peak 1 in the chromatogram of *C. septicum* represents ethylamine, while peak 2 in the *P. mirabilis* chromatogram represents isobutylamine and peak 3 isopentylamine.

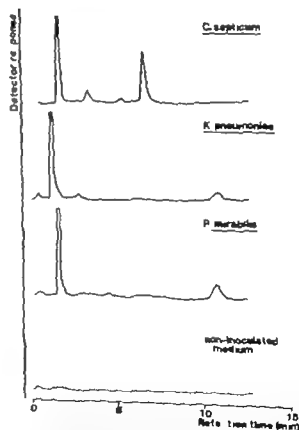


Fig. 4 Chromatograms, obtained by gas chromatographic analysis of the head-space vapour above acidified chopped-meat-glucose (CMG) medium inoculated with *Clostridium septicum*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae* and *Proteus mirabilis*, using Chromosorb 103 as stationary phase. For comparison, a chromatogram representing sterile CMG is also shown.

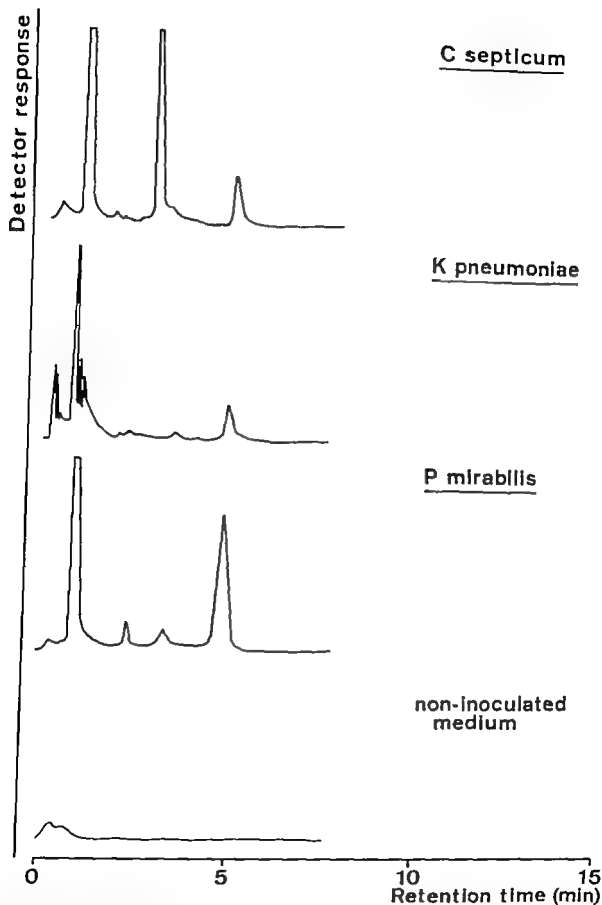


Fig 2 Chromatograms obtained by gas chromatographic analysis of the head-space vapour above acidified chopped meat-glucose (CMG) medium inoculated with *Clostridium septicum*, *Aleobactera pneumoniae* and *Proteus mirabilis*, using Porapak Q as stationary phase. For comparison, a chromatogram from a sample of the gas phase above sterile CMG is shown

Head-space GC may be automated (16). After incubation, media can be transferred to ampoules containing Na_2SO_4 and H_2SO_4 or NaOH which are ready for use in a head-space analyzer. Acidic samples are analysed using Porapak Q as stationary phase, while the alkaline samples are chromatographed on Chromosorb 103. Provided a gas chromatograph equipped with dual detectors is used, one and the same instrument can be used in all analyses.

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the different strains tested of the same species were virtually identical.

Analysis Using Chromosorb 103

In Fig. 3 are shown chromatograms representing the head-space atmosphere above CMG medium inoculated with the three bacterial species studied and of sterile CMG after the media had been made alkaline (pH 12.3–12.6) and heated. Characteristic and reproducible elution patterns were obtained for each of the bacterial species studied. When injecting acidified samples of *C. septicum* and *P. mirabilis* on the Chromosorb 103 column, peak 1 (produced by *C. septicum*) and peaks 2 and 3 (produced by *P. mirabilis*) were no longer present in the chromatograms (Fig. 4). These peaks were therefore considered to represent amines. The retention time of authentic ethylamine agreed with that of peak 1 which also eluted more slowly than methylamine, though faster than iso-propylamine. The mass spectra of components 2 and 3 indicated molecular weights of 73 and 87 respectively. Both spectra showed base peaks at m/e 30 consistent with spectra of primary amines.



However it is difficult to distinguish between straight-chain and iso-branched isomers on the basis of mass spectra alone. Therefore, the identities of components 2 and 3 were established by GC. It was found that the retention times of peak 2 and 3 coincided with those of isobutyl and isopentylamine, respectively. In addition the straight-chained amines showed considerably longer elution times.

Influence of Culture Media

C. septicum produced larger amounts of ethylamine when cultured on CMG than when PYG was used. When testing *K. pneumoniae* or *P. mirabilis*, no conclusive differences between the chromatograms were found when using CMG or TSB.

When testing sterile CMG, PYG and TSB which had been incubated under the same conditions as the bacterial cultures studied, negligible peaks were obtained compared with those found when studying cultures of the three organisms grown in the media mentioned.

DISCUSSION

GC analysis of microbial metabolites in liquid culture media has proved a useful aid in the identification of microorganisms, particularly of anaerobic bacteria. Usually alcohols and fatty acids have been studied. However also carbohydrates, esters, amines and sulphur-containing microbial

products have been analysed. Alkaline products of bacteria belonging to the genera *Clostridium*, *Neisseria*, *Proteus*, *Staphylococcus* and *Streptococcus* have been studied (3–7). The analytical technique has involved acylation of amino groups with heptafluorobutyric or trifluoroacetic anhydride. The rather complex procedures involving extraction plus the above-mentioned derivatizations, make these techniques less suitable for routine use in identification of clinical isolates of bacteria. However our technique, employing Chromosorb 103 allowed direct analysis of amines without derivatization. GC analysis of amines has earlier proved useful in the differential diagnosis of microorganisms (4, 6, 7).

The head-space GC method described is a rapid and easily performed way of analysing acidic, neutral and alkaline volatile products formed in bacterial broth cultures. Under the test conditions used, straight-chained fatty acids and alcohols up to C8 and amines up to C10 could be detected. As an aid in peak identification, acidified samples can be injected on the Chromosorb 103 column, where acids are retained.

Decrease in peak area, or disappearance of peaks in chromatograms found when injecting amines on a Chromosorb 103 phase containing some adsorbed free acids, indicates the formation of salt on the stationary phase. It is likely that large amounts of salt or amides possibly formed will gradually deteriorate the column, making it necessary to replace the first part of the packing material after the column has been in use for some time. It is also advisable to inject a standard solution of amines after each injection of acids on Chromosorb 103 in order to neutralize free acids adsorbed on the packing material.

In the present study Chromosorb 103 was chosen as column packing when analysing amines and alcohols. Carbowax 20M supplemented with KOH provided a satisfactory separation between these compounds (Fig. 1). However this phase is unstable at the working temperature used for the Porapak Q column, which is simultaneously present in the instrument. For this reason Chromosorb 103 was preferred to Carbowax 20M.

Head-space GC can be used for analysing compounds which, at a convenient working temperature, have a sufficiently high vapour pressure (11). Since no solvent peaks are present in head space chromatograms, compounds with very short retention times can be detected. Our head-space technique was found to provide a potential tool for the characterization of both aerobic and anaerobic bacteria. Our results particularly indicate the usefulness of analysis of amines in the differential diagnosis of bacteria.

Head-space GC may be automated (16). After incubation, media can be transferred to ampoules containing Na_2SO_4 and H_2SO_4 or NaOH , which are ready for use in a head-space analyzer. Acidic samples are analysed using Porapak Q as stationary phase, while the alkaline samples are chromatographed on Chromosorb 103. Provided a gas chromatograph equipped with dual detectors is used, one and the same instrument can be used in all analyses.

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EXPERIMENTAL ENDOCARDITIS IN RABBITS

1. Technique and Spontaneous Course of Non-bacterial Thrombotic Endocarditis

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Gutschik, E. & Christensen, N. Experimental endocarditis in rabbits. I. Technique and spontaneous course of non-bacterial thrombotic endocarditis. *Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B*, 86 215-221 1978.

Insertion of polyethylene catheter into the heart was used for regular establishment of sterile endocarditis in 52 rabbits. The catheter was secured with the aid of guide wire, and distance marking on the catheter was used to obtain precise positioning, so that the catheter was retained with the curved distal end inside the left ventricle of the heart. The results showed that the catheterization procedure could be carried out with a high degree of accuracy. Uniform localization of the vegetation was obtained, those reaching a noticeable size of development in all rabbits after insertion of the catheter for 3 days. Histological examination of the sterile vegetation showed that catheter withdrawal at this time would still permit the regular development of an infection. After withdrawal of the catheter the sterile vegetation rapidly decreased in size and disappeared almost completely by 10 days. Sterile endocarditis in rabbits induced by a catheter for a period of 3 days proved to be a harmless and self-limiting disease. The model presented seems to be suitable for further investigations on experimental bacterial endocarditis.

Key words: Experimental endocarditis, non-bacterial thrombotic endocarditis, rabbits, polyethylene catheter.

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Of the many methods tried within the last 100 years with the aim of producing in animals an experimental model of human endocarditis, the most successful was described in 1970 by Garrison & Freedman (6) and further improved on by Durack *et al.* in 1972-73 (1, 2). Their method is based on the insertion of a polyethylene catheter into the interior of the heart, resulting in a non-bacterial thrombotic endocarditis, and subsequent injection of bacteria into the blood stream.

As it would seem possible with this model to perform therapeutic trials regarding the effect of various antibiotic combinations on bacterial endo-

carditis, a series of experiments was started with such trials as the ultimate goal (3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 11, 12).

This first paper is a report on the technique finally adopted. A description is given of certain improvements which make it possible to produce, with absolute certainty, endocarditis characterized by great uniformity of the pathological process, even if the catheter is removed before injection of bacteria. Data are presented concerning the spontaneous course and character of the pathological process of non-bacterial endocarditis. These data were obtained by performing autopsy on rabbits killed at regular intervals after insertion of the catheter.

Group III 10 rabbits were used for long-term study of sterile endocarditis. The average age of these rabbits was 190.5 days (range 171–208 days) and the average weight 2950 g (range 2790–3080 g). The catheter was removed after insertion for 3 days, after which the rabbits were observed for 50 days and then sacrificed.

RESULTS

Localization of Inserted Catheters

The curved end of the catheter was found regularly near the apex inside the left ventricle in all rabbits (group I, Fig. 1A and 1B). No unintentional injury of aorta, the leaflets or the myocardium was observed, nor was hemopericardium observed in any one. In rabbits examined after removal of the catheter certain indications of previous catheterization were found, such as vegetations or whitish, fibrous changes of the myocardium in the left ventricle.

Pathology of the Heart

Predominance, gross appearance and weight of vegetations. Uniform localization and size of the vegetations were found in rabbits which were

sacrificed at the same time. The majority of the vegetations were in the apex of the left ventricle, on the base of the papillary muscles, 2–5 mm above the valves in the aorta, and on the aortic valves – usually on one or two of them, but hardly ever on all three. Furthermore, vegetations were also observed frequently around the orifice of a. anonyma. Whereas the vegetations were rather flat in the apex and on the papillary muscles, they were polypous and acorniform on the valves and in the aorta, varying in size from 1–5 mm. The vegetations were whitish and rather firm, but did not adhere to the catheter. Small vegetations could be seen with the naked eye in one of three rabbits 12 h after insertion of the catheter and in all rabbits after 24 h (group I). Vegetations had developed to an experimentally desirable size and at the typical sites mentioned above after insertion of the catheter for 3 days. Vegetations were never observed on the tricuspid valves in the left side of the heart. While the vegetations continued to increase in size and weight in rabbits with indwelling catheters (Table 1), they decreased in size and weight after withdrawal of the catheter (Table 2). Only small vegetations



Fig. 1A Position of the polyethylene catheter in the left side of the heart of the rabbit.

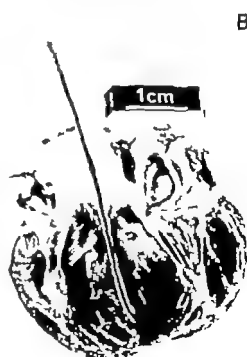


Fig. 1B Position of the polyethylene catheter in the left side of the heart of the rabbit. The atriaventricular valve and the aorta are cut through.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Rabbits All animals were random-bred conventional, male albino rabbits (Sac.CPH) from Statens Serum Institut, weighing about 3000 g. They were fed with a pellet diet supplemented with unlimited water and kept in solid cages.

Catheter The catheter was a transparent polyethylene tubing PE 90 with curved end (Surgimed Ølstykke, Denmark) inside diameter was 0.85 mm, outside diameter 1.3 mm and length 20 cm. The catheter was marked at 9 and 11 cm from the tip. It was flanged at the proximal end and fitted with a nylon female luer lock.

Guide wire Designation A 90 length 30 cm, composed of a spirally wired tube and a straight movable core (Surgimed). The diameter was 0.71 mm equal to 0.028 inches, corresponding to US No. III.

Operation technique The rabbits were anaesthetized i.v. with mebumal sodium. The average dose at the first operation was 21.7 mg/kg, SD 3.2 (49 observations), and at the second operation 21.3 mg/kg SD 2.7 (30 observations). The operation field was shaved, disinfected with spiritus jodi (Ph. Dan. 1948) and infiltrated with 3 ml of 1% lidocain chloride. Using sterile technique throughout, the right carotid artery was exposed at the midpoint of the neck, held between two silk threads, ligated proximally and dripped with 0.2 ml of 1% pethidin chloride in order to obtain a greater diameter of the artery by relaxation.

Catheterization technique In preparation for insertion of the catheter the catheter-guide wire complex was assembled as follows. First, the guide wire was inserted into the catheter and pushed forward until it was about 2 cm beyond the straightened distal end, secondly a brief retraction of the core of the guide wire was made, resulting in 2 cm of pliable tubing protruding from the distal end of the catheter.

Through an incision the catheter and guide wire were passed down the carotid artery up to the 9 cm marking, then the guide wire was removed and the insertion completed by pushing the catheter up to the 11 cm marking. Preliminary investigations, which included measurement of blood pressure at different levels inside the heart, X-ray and post mortem examination, showed that the tip of the catheter was at the level of the aortic valves after about 9 cm, and near the apex cordis after insertion of about 11 cm. After complete insertion, the catheter was tied to the carotid artery and blood samples could now be taken through the catheter during the operation. Any part of the catheter which protruded was then cut off the cervical end clamped off and the skin closed with silk sutures. Removal of the catheter could be performed by simple withdrawal after new anaesthesia with mebumal sodium, but without local infiltration with lidocain chloride. Insertion of the catheter took 20–30 min, and the removal 10–20 min.

The operative mortality which was < 10% was due to bleeding from the operation wound and pneumonia. Cardiac arrhythmia was suspected in two rabbits which succumbed immediately after insertion of the catheter. Symptoms and death occurred within the first 3 days of

catheterization. No deaths were observed in direct connection with the anaesthetic agent.

Blood cultures. 1 ml blood was drawn from the marginal ear vein into a syringe previously soaked with 0.9% saline containing 10 U Heparin® (Leo Laboratories, Copenhagen) per ml and was spread immediately on to three 5% blood agar plates (diameter 13.5 cm). The plates were incubated at 35°C and observed for growth after 48 h. Blood samples were taken from all rabbits at least twice weekly and terminally.

Post mortem Examination

The rabbits were sacrificed at the predetermined times, by rapid injection of 200 mg mebumal sodium, and autopsy took place immediately. The heart and spleen of all rabbits were weighed and liquid from the pleural spaces and the peritoneal cavity was collected and measured. The vegetations from the left side of the heart were removed aseptically weighed and homogenized in glass tissue grinders, after the addition of 10 times saline per unit of weight. To determine the efficacy of homogenization, gram-stained slides were prepared from each suspension. Culture was made from the undiluted suspension by spreading triplicates of 0.1 ml samples on blood agar plates which were incubated for 24 h at 35°C and observed for growth.

Routine bacteriological culture was made from the peritoneal cavity (liver spleen, kidneys, mesenteric glands, pleural spaces and lungs) by inoculating blood agar plates with small pieces of tissue or fluid taken with a small platinum loop. The plates were incubated for 48 h at 35°C and observed for growth.

The heart of one rabbit in each experimental series was used exclusively for histological examination. Sections were prepared from the aorta at the level of the orifice of a. anonyma, above the leaflets, from the aorta ostium, from underneath the ostium, from the septum and papillary muscles and from the myocardium at the bottom of the left ventricle.

The gross structure of the liver spleen, mesenteric glands, kidneys and suprarenal glands was examined, and where pathological processes were observed or suspected, histological examination was also carried out.

Plan of the Study

Experimental Animals

Group I 21 rabbits were studied for sterile endocarditis with indwelling catheters. The average age of the rabbits was 185.1 days (range 171–223 days) and the average weight 3063 g (range 2850–3250 g). Three rabbits were sacrificed at 3 and 12 h and at 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 days after insertion of the catheter.

Group II In 21 rabbits the catheter was removed after insertion for 3 days, and the course of the sterile endocarditis was studied at autopsy. The average age of these rabbits was 189.2 days (range 176–207 days) and the average weight 3029 g (range 2820–3180 g). Three rabbits were sacrificed at 1, 2, 3, 4, 10, 20 and 30 days after removal of the catheter.

TABLE 3 Experimental Group III Long-term Study of Left Sided Sterile Endocarditis in Rabbits after Removal of Catheter The Catheter was Left *in situ* for 3 Days

| Number of rabbits | Interval between removal of catheter and sacrifice | Vegetations found | Weight of spleen (g) | Weight of heart (g) |
|-------------------|--|-------------------|-------------------------|---------------------|
| 10 | 60 days | None | Average 1.16 SD 0.36 | 9.91 2.58 |

fions did not take place during the first 4 days. The vegetations decreased in size rapidly and 10 days after removal of the catheter only moderate oedema of the aortic valves and slight inflammation of the underlying myocardial tissue could be found.

Weight of the heart in the course of sterile endocarditis. In rabbits with indwelling catheters, no noteworthy increase in weight occurred during observation for 5 days (Table 1). However in some rabbits observed for 60 days (Table 3), hypertrophy and enlargement of the heart were found. In four of 10 rabbits in this group, the weight had increased more than 10 g, while there was no increase in 21 rabbits in group I.

Bacteriological examination. No growth was obtained from any of the homogenized vegetations. In rabbits which had no vegetations at the time of sacrifice, small pieces of aortic valves and myocardium were cultured, but gave no growth.

Pathology of Other Organs

The spleen appeared to be normal in all rabbits. The range of weight was 0.63–1.90 g. Histological examination showed abundance of white pulp and some stasis. In the kidneys, there were sterile, cortical, ischemic infarcts in five out of 21 rabbits which had indwelling catheters and had been sacrificed at regular intervals during the 5-day experimental period. In rabbits from which the catheter was removed after insertion for 3 days, infarcts were found regularly (group III). The rabbits were sacrificed at intervals during 30 days observation. In this group 24 of 42 kidneys had sterile infarcts, usually 2–5 mm² in size, and rarely up to 10 mm². None of the rabbits sacrificed after 60 days observation (group III) had fresh infarcts, but some had infarcts of older date, practically all scarred. The kidneys were found to be normal in size. Gross examination of lungs, liver, mesenteric glands and suprarenal glands showed normal findings in all rabbits, apart from some congestion. Liquor in the pleural spaces and peritoneal cavity was found in few rabbits only; this did not exceed 5 ml.

Bacteriological culture from blood and organs. No growth was obtained from any blood sample taken during the experimental periods. The organs were also found to be sterile, apart from sparse growth of *Bordetella bronchiseptica* from the lungs in a few rabbits.

Mortality and Body Weight

The sterile left-sided endocarditis was well tolerated in all rabbits. Long-term observation of rabbits (group III) with sterile endocarditis, but without indwelling catheter showed that all animals survived in good condition up to the predetermined time of sacrifice (60 days). They sustained a moderate loss in weight between the first and second operation, followed by a significant increase. They gained on an average 7.0% (SE 1.6%) in weight from the first operation to autopsy and 9.8% (SE 1.8%) from the second operation to autopsy.

DISCUSSION

The technique used by Freedman and co-workers (6, 9, 10) and by Durack *et al.* (1, 2) was blind insertion of a catheter either through the femoral vein, vena jugularis or the carotid artery into the right or left half of the heart. They showed that vegetations could be produced regularly by this procedure. Their later studies on infective endocarditis were performed by injection of bacteria into the blood stream of rabbits in which sterile vegetations had first been produced in this way and in most cases the catheter was left *in situ* during the infection (3, 4, 5, 9). In spite of the simplicity and reproducibility of Freedman's and Durack's model, it appeared to us after some preliminary experiments that certain improvements were possible. By blind insertion, one cannot control the position of the tip of the catheter and therefore perforation of the myocardial wall sometimes occurs, as had also been observed by Garbino & Freedman (6). Further more, the production of vegetations varies some-

TABLE 1 *Experimental Group I Course of Left Sided Sterile Endocarditis in Rabbits with Indwelling Catheter*

| Number of rabbits | Interval between insertion of catheter and sacrifice | Weight ^{a)} of vegetations (mg) | | Average weight of | |
|-------------------|--|--|-------|-------------------------|--------------|
| | | | | Spleen (g) | Heart (g) |
| 3 | 3 h | 0 | 0 | 1.43 | 8.13 |
| 3 | 12 h | 0 | 0 | 1.00 | 8.13 |
| 3 | 1 day | 8.5 | 8.5 | 1.00 | 8.05 |
| 3 | 2 days | 12.2 | 14.4 | 1.49 | 9.22 |
| 3 | 3 days | 19.4 | 20.6 | 1.26 | 8.89 |
| 3 | 4 days | 27.8 | 48.7 | 1.23 | 8.17 |
| 3 | 5 days | 45.4 | 115.2 | 1.10 | 8.29 |
| 21 | | | | Average 1.22 SD 0.28 | 8.34 0.94 |

^{a)} The weights are recorded for two rabbits only because the heart of one rabbit in each subgroup was taken for histological examination.

remained after 4 days, and they had almost disappeared after 10 days. Whitish fibrous changes in the left ventricle continued to be visible. The aortic valves appeared to be completely normal.

Histological examination of the vegetations leaflets and myocardial tissues. Small disruptions of the endothelium covered by fibrin with mononuclear cells were the first signs of changes occurring 3–12 h after insertion of the catheter. The sterile, fully developed vegetations were built up of a laminated material of fibrin and probably thrombocytes, always involving mononuclear cells. At the base of

the vegetations the endothelium was disrupted, and oedema and reactive inflammatory response were found regularly in the underlying tissues. As early as 3 days after insertion of the catheter the appearance of small new vessels and proliferating fibroblasts was observed in the vegetations. Rapid acceleration of this process occurred during subsequent days and 4–5 days later development of collagen fibrilla was seen. After removal of the catheter (insertion for 3 days), the organization of the vegetations became pronounced, but definite endothelialization of the free surface of the vegeta-

TABLE 2 *Experimental Group II Course of Left Sided Sterile Endocarditis in Rabbits after Removal of Catheter. The Catheter was Left in situ for 3 Days*

| Number of rabbits | Interval between removal of catheter and sacrifice (days) | Weight ^{a)} of vegetations (mg) | | Average weight of | |
|-------------------|---|--|------|-------------------------|--------------|
| | | | | Spleen (g) | Heart (g) |
| 3 | 1 | 28.3 | 35.2 | 1.00 | 7.03 |
| 3 | 2 | 28.7 | 26.3 | 0.97 | 7.59 |
| 3 | 3 | 28.3 | 14.5 | 1.28 | 8.58 |
| 3 | 4 | 5.0 | 5.0 | 0.70 | 8.19 |
| 3 | 10 | 0 | 0 | 0.78 | 8.30 |
| 3 | 20 | 0 | 0 | 1.00 | 8.43 |
| 3 | 30 | 0 | 0 | 1.00 | 9.58 |
| 21 | | | | Average 0.96 SD 0.24 | 8.24 1.29 |

^{a)} The weights are recorded for two rabbits only because the heart of one rabbit in each subgroup was taken for histological examination.

TABLE 3 *Experimental Group III Long-term Study of Left Sided Sterile Endocarditis in Rabbits after Removal of Catheter The Catheter was Left in situ for 3 Days*

| Number of rabbits | Interval between removal of catheter and sacrifice | Vegetations found | | Weight of spleen (g) | Weight of heart (g) |
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| 10 | 60 days | None | Average | 1.16 | 9.91 |
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| Number of rabbits | Interval between insertion of catheter and sacrifice | Weight ^(*) of vegetations (mg) | | Average weight of | |
|-------------------|--|---|-------|-------------------|-----------|
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the vegetations, the endothelium was disrupted, and oedema and reactive inflammatory response were found regularly in the underlying tissues. As early as 3 days after insertion of the catheter the appearance of small new vessels and proliferating fibroblasts was observed in the vegetations. Rapid acceleration of this process occurred during subsequent days and 4–5 days later development of collagen fibrilla was seen. After removal of the catheter (insertion for 3 days), the organization of the vegetations became pronounced, but definite endothelialization of the free surface of the vegeta-

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| Number of rabbits | Interval between removal of catheter and sacrifice (days) | Weight ^(*) of vegetations (mg) | | Average weight of | |
|-------------------|---|---|------|-------------------|-----------|
| | | | | Spleen (g) | Heart (g) |
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| 3 | 4 | 5.0 | 5.0 | 0.70 | 8.19 |
| 3 | 10 | 0 | 0 | 0.78 | 8.30 |
| 3 | 20 | 0 | 0 | 1.00 | 8.41 |
| 3 | 30 | 0 | 0 | 1.00 | 9.58 |
| 21 | | | | Average 0.96 | 8.24 |
| | | | | SD 0.24 | 1.29 |

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hat, depending on the level at which the tip is positioned. These disadvantages can be circumvented successfully by using the technique described in the present paper. The guide wire and the distance markings on the catheter ensure precise positioning of the tip so that unintentional damage can be avoided and a more uniform localization of the vegetations can be obtained.

As it would seem desirable to avoid disturbing influence of the indwelling catheter during the infectious processes we also decided to ascertain whether the continued presence of the catheter was indispensable for the development of the infection. However it was first necessary to find the time for withdrawal of the catheter that would still permit the regular development of an infection, and to do this the spontaneous course of the non infected processes was examined in detail, as reported in the present paper. Since it was found that not until after 3 days had the vegetations reached a suitable degree of development in all rabbits and as the histological examination indicated that organization and endothelialization at that time were still negligible it was decided to withdraw the catheter after 3 days and then introduce the bacteria. To wait for 3 days had the further advantage that the animals did not have to be allocated to different experimental groups until it was known which animals had survived the operation.

The histological appearance of the vegetations was found to be similar to that found by Perlman & Freedman (9) and by Durack *et al.* (2). However we also observed that the sterile vegetations were polypous and aciniform in the aorta and on the aortic valves, while the vegetations in the ventricle were rather flat and smooth. It seems conceivable that the bacterial aggregations on and the growth in these two types of vegetations might be different.

While the presence of the catheter leads to continuous enlargement of the sterile vegetations, a surprisingly rapid disappearance of the vegetations was observed after withdrawal of the catheter. Histological studies showed that the sterile vegetations had disappeared almost completely before the completion of restorative processes, *i.e.* newbuilding of vessels and endothelialization. Fibrinolytic activity probably plays an essential part but also mechanical tearing must be a contributing factor as evidenced by the regular occurrence of kidney infarcts.

Rabbits with long-standing sterile endocarditis appeared to be unaffected. Even the infarction of the kidneys did not seem to be harmful. However some of the rabbits developed hypertrophy of the heart, as also observed by Durack *et al.* (2). The aortic valves were found to be entirely normal in these rabbits,

and none of them had signs of haemodynamic disturbances. The significant increase in body weight also indicates that sterile endocarditis is harmless and self-limiting in rabbits and has hardly any influence on the survival.

With the aid of this model it would seem possible to perform evaluation of the pathogenicity of different bacterial species by measuring the time of survival.

We are indebted to the staff of the Institute for Experimental Research in Surgery, University of Copenhagen, for advice and assistance in performing the preliminary investigations, and to K. L. Fennestad, V.M.D. Statens Serum Institut, for provision and maintenance of the rabbits. We are grateful to Mrs. U. A. S. Petersen for technical assistance and to Miss A. Overgaard and Mr. F. Laurson for photographic assistance.

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EXPERIMENTAL ENDOCARDITIS IN RABBITS

2. Course of Untreated *Streptococcus faecalis* Infection

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Gutschik, E. & Christensen, N. Experimental endocarditis in rabbits. 2. Course of untreated *Streptococcus faecalis* infection. Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B, 86: 223-228, 1978.

Insertion of a polyethylene catheter in the left side of the heart was used to induce sterile endocarditis in 34 rabbits. Bacterial endocarditis was established by injection of approximately 10^4 *Streptococcus faecalis* into the blood stream simultaneously with the removal of the catheter which had been in place for 3 days. The course of the bacterial endocarditis was examined by autopsy of rabbits sacrificed at regular intervals after the infection. The results showed that the presence of the catheter was not essential for the induction or maintenance of the infection. Growth of the bacteria took place in the preformed vegetation in the aorta, on the aortic valves and in the left ventricle. However, increases in the size of the vegetations, a high density of bacteria in the vegetations and secondary spreading were found only on the aortic valves. The extracardial manifestations of left-sided *S. faecalis* endocarditis included constant bacteremia, a high frequency of septic kidney infarcts and enlargement of the spleen. This form of experimentally provoked bacterial endocarditis in rabbits provides a good model of human subacute endocarditis, and would thus seem to be suitable for further study of the pathophysiology of endocarditis and evaluation of the effect of treatment with antibiotics.

Key words: Experimental endocarditis, bacterial endocarditis, rabbits, *Streptococcus faecalis*.

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A reproducible model of experimental endocarditis in rabbits was described by Garrison & Freedman in 1970 (6). The method is based on the observation that a polyethylene catheter installed in the inner heart results in the development of sterile vegetations. It was shown in a previous report that a uniform development of such vegetations can be ensured by means of an improved left-sided catheterization technique. This provides the possibility of establishing bacterial endocarditis, even when the catheter is removed after insertion for 3 days (8).

The bacterial endocarditis can be induced either by introducing a bacterial suspension through the catheter (6, 12, 13) or by injecting the bacteria into the blood stream at various times after insertion of the catheter (3, 4, 5, 9, 15). A rapid fatal course

has been observed in rabbits with left-sided endocarditis, while in right-sided endocarditis the course was more varied and spontaneous recovery occurred (1, 4, 6). Removal of the catheter at various times after insertion resulted in a considerable increase in the frequency of spontaneous recovery particularly in rabbits with the right-sided disease (1, 4, 13), but also in those with endocarditis on the left side (1, 13).

The aim of this study was to examine the development and course of bacterial endocarditis in rabbits inoculated intravenously with *Streptococcus faecalis* simultaneously with removal of the catheter after insertion for 3 days. The data presented are obtained by autopsy of rabbits sacrificed at regular intervals after the infection.

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TABLE 1 Course of Left sided Streptococcus faecalis Endocarditis in 34 Rabbits The Catheter was Removed after Insertion for 3 Days, Simultaneously with the Intravenous Injection of 10⁴ Bacteria

| Number of rabbits | Interval between removal of catheter and sacrifice (hours) | Average weight of | | | Average of colony forming unit | |
|-------------------|--|--------------------------------|------------|-----------|--------------------------------|-----------------------|
| | | Vegetations ^{a)} (mg) | Spleen (g) | Heart (g) | per g vegetation | per ml blood |
| 3 | 1½ | 41.0 | 1.22 | 6.94 | 3.3 × 10 ⁵ | 1.1 × 10 ⁴ |
| 4 | 3 | 38.9 | 1.03 | 8.12 | 8.3 × 10 ⁵ | 7.4 × 10 ⁶ |
| 4 | 6 | 34.4 | 1.19 | 7.92 | 1.8 × 10 ⁷ | 1.3 × 10 ⁴ |
| 4 | 12 | 29.9 | 1.30 | 8.05 | 4.3 × 10 ⁸ | 1.2 × 10 ⁴ |
| 4 | 24 | 51.7 | 1.98 | 8.26 | 4.9 × 10 ⁹ | 5.9 × 10 ⁴ |
| 4 | 48 | 52.4 | 1.53 | 8.07 | 1.3 × 10 ¹⁰ | 1.7 × 10 ⁴ |
| 4 | 72 | 90.0 | 3.26 | 8.71 | 2.1 × 10 ¹⁰ | 1.6 × 10 ⁴ |
| 4 | 96 | 153.9 | 3.52 | 8.24 | 2.8 × 10 ¹⁰ | 9.3 × 10 ³ |
| 3 | 36-72 (sacrificed spontaneously) | 135.3 ^{b)} | 2.93 | 8.99 | 4.6 × 10 ¹⁰ | - |

^{a)} Data recorded for 3 rabbits only since the heart of one rabbit in each subgroup was used for histology

^{b)} Data recorded for 2 rabbits

heart were observed in one rabbit, but none of the animals had vegetations in the right side. The number of bacteria increased rapidly in the vegetation. There were about 10⁵ bacteria per g vegetation 1½ hours after the inoculation, increasing to 10⁴ to 10⁵ bacteria per g after 24 hours (Table 1). Within 2 days the number of bacteria in the vegetation had reached a stationary level.

Weight of heart. Even though dilatation and some hypertrophy of the wall of the heart was seen in a number of rabbits, no definite trend in the weight was noted during the experiment (Table 1). There was some variation in the weight of the heart between 5.87 and 10.53 g in individual rabbits.

Histology of vegetations. The vegetations consisted of an amorphous eosinophilic mass of fibrin and thrombocytes, with some indication of stratification. In addition to mononuclear cells, they contained granulocytes, though there were not many of these and they were never in direct contact with the bacteria. Macroscopically the earliest finding of bacteria was 12 hours after the infection (Figs 5 and 6).

There was a pronounced difference in the number of bacteria in the vegetations at various sites in the left half of the heart. While the bacteria occurred in the form of large masses of oval or circular rings in the vegetations on the aortic valves (Fig. 7), similar concentrations were rare in the vegetations from the left ventricle and aortic wall during the first 24 hours of infection and no bacteria could be demonstrated after this time. The bacteria were always embedded in the fibrin substance itself and

never extended to the surface of the vegetations (Fig. 5-6-7). Severe reactive inflammation and oedema were found in the underlying tissue, but the bacteria did not invade these structures. Healing processes with ingrowing vessels and fibroblasts were only present to a slight degree.

Extracardial Manifestations of Bacterial Endocarditis

Spleen. A characteristic change in the colour of the spleen from light red to dark red could be seen during the infection period. In some rabbits the parenchyma was hyperaemic with increased white pulp. The weight of the spleen during the first 48 hours was 0.62 to 1.74 g, except in one rabbit where it was 3.04 g. After 56 hours an increase in the weight occurred to > 2 g (2.40 to 5.54 g) except in one rabbit where it was 1.70 g (Table 1).

Kidneys. Anatomic and mainly cortical infarcts were found regularly. The frequency of the fresh infarcts increased with the survival time. Thus 27 of 46 kidneys had one or more infarcts during the first 48 hours, while 20 of 22 kidneys had infarcts after that time. The size of the infarcts also increased during the infection from 2 to 5 mm² in the early phase to over 10 mm² in the later phase.

Other organs. The lungs were oedematous and small infarcts were often seen. Microscopy of the liver showed diffuse focal cell necrosis in the majority of the rabbits and sinus reticulosis was found in the mesenteric glands. The suprarenal glands were normal both macroscopically and microscopically.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The experimental animals were random-bred, male albino rabbits (Sec.CPH) from Statens Seruminstitut. The average weight was 2979 g (range 2630-3240) and the average age 181.2 days (range 135-226 days).

Pretreatment for producing left sided sterile endocarditis. The rabbits were anaesthetized with mebumal sodium intravenously. The average dose at the first operation was 23.0 mg (SD 2.4) and at the second operation 22.4 mg (SD 2.5). A polyethylene catheter was inserted into the left ventricle of the heart, using the technique described previously (8). The catheter was left in place for 3 days.

Infecting organism. The strain of *S. faecalis* used in all infection experiments was originally recovered from the blood of a patient with bacterial endocarditis. The most important tests used in identification were the ability to grow in 6.5% NaCl broth, growth at 10° and 45°C and reduction of 0.04% potassium tellurite. Furthermore, the strain was β -haemolytic and able to liquefy gelatine after incubation for 24 hours at 22°C. The media and tests used for subcultivation and identification have been described in detail previously (7, 11).

Identification of the organisms recovered from blood, vegetations and different organs from the experimental animals by subculture on 5% blood agar plates was made by microscopy of typical colonies and by tests for tellurite resistance and gelatine liquefaction.

Infection of pretreated animals. After 3 days with indwelling catheter a second operation was carried out to remove the catheter and 1 ml of a bacterial suspension of *S. faecalis* was simultaneously injected into a marginal ear vein. The suspension was prepared from an overnight culture on 5% blood agar suspended in saline. This suspension contained approximately 10^8 colony forming units (CFU) per ml (mean 1.299×10^8 SEM 0.036×10^8).

Quantitative blood culture. Blood specimens were taken from all rabbits just before the predetermined time of sacrificing. One or 2 ml blood was drawn from the marginal ear vein into a syringe previously rinsed with 0.9% saline containing 10 U Heparin® (Leo Laboratories, Copenhagen) per ml. One ml was streaked immediately onto 5% blood agar plates (diameter 13.5 cm). When a large number of CFU was expected a further 1 ml blood was diluted in 0.9% saline 1:10 and 1 ml of this was streaked on blood agar plates. The plates were incubated at 35°C and the number of colonies was counted 48 hours later, since after that time no further development of new colonies had been observed.

Autopsy. All cages were inspected at least every 6 hours day and night, so that in cases of spontaneous death the animals could be removed to a refrigerator within 11 hours and kept there until autopsy could be performed.

The heart and spleen were weighed, and fluid from the pleural spaces and peritoneal cavity was collected and measured. The vegetations from the left side of the heart were removed aseptically, weighed, added to ten volumes saline per unit weight vegetation and homogenized in a glass tissue grinder. To determine the efficacy of

homogenization, gram-stained slides were prepared from each suspension. Quantitative culture was made from ten-fold dilution in saline and from the undiluted suspension by spreading triplicate 0.1 ml samples on blood agar plates. The colonies were counted after incubation for 24 hours at 35°C, and the number of organisms was expressed as CFU/g wet tissue.

Semiquantitative culture was carried out routinely from the peritoneal cavity, liver, spleen, kidneys, mesenteric glands, pleural spaces and lungs by seeding blood agar plates with small pieces of tissue or fluid taken with a small platinum loop from the peritoneal cavity and the pleural spaces. After incubation for 48 hours at 35°C, the degree of growth was read as 0 + + + and + + + corresponding to no growth, from 1 to 10 colonies, from 11 colonies to confluent growth and confluent growth. The heart of one rabbit from each of the subgroups in the experiment (Table 1) was used exclusively for the histological examination, together with the liver, lungs, spleen, mesenteric glands and suprarenal glands from the same rabbit.

General plan of the study. A total of 34 rabbits was used. Three rabbits were sacrificed 1½ hours after intravenous injection of bacteria, and groups of four rabbits after 3, 6, 12, 24, 48, 72 and 96 hours. Three rabbits which succumbed spontaneously between 56-72 hours after infection are grouped separately (Table 1).

RESULTS

Bacterial endocarditis was demonstrated in all rabbits by culture of *S. faecalis* from vegetations, except in the case of rabbits which died spontaneously where the diagnosis of bacterial endocarditis was established by histological examination of vegetations. Spontaneous death occurred in three of the 34 rabbits 56 to 72 hours after the intravenous injection of bacteria (Table 1).

Cardiac Manifestations of Bacterial Endocarditis

Distribution, weight and bacteriology of vegetations. During the early phase of the infection, the vegetations were found regularly on one or two of the aortic valves on the wall of the aorta a few millimetres above the valves, at the base of the papillary muscles and at the bottom of the left ventricle (Figs 1 and 3). The vegetation showed decreasing weight during the first 12 hours, but the weight increased during the later course (Table 1). There were signs of secondary spreading as shown by development of vegetations on all three aortic valves, and also in some rabbits by the development of small flat vegetations on the wall of the aorta. Parallel with the increasing growth of vegetations on the aortic valves, there was a decrease in the size and extent of the vegetations in the left ventricle and on the wall of aorta (Figs 1, 2, 3 and 4). Vegetations on the atrioventricular valves in the left side of the

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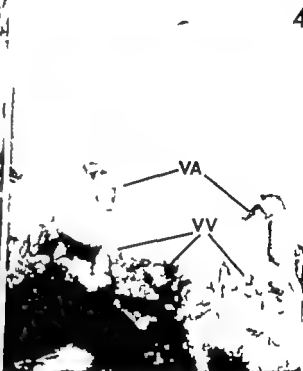
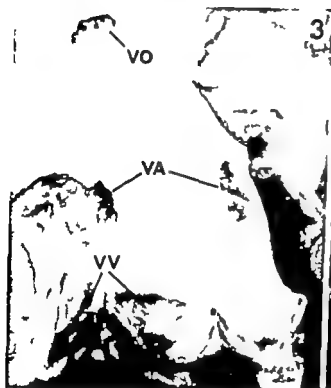
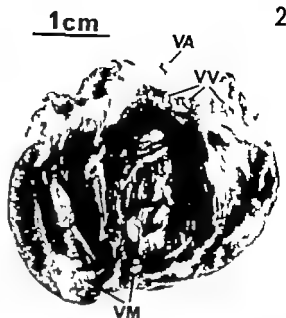
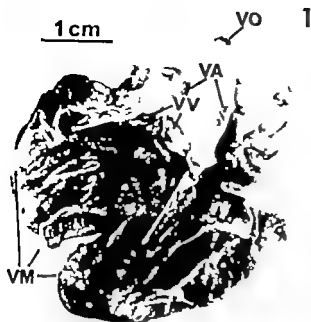
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Other organs. The lungs were oedematous and small abscesses were often seen. Microscopy of the liver showed diffuse focal cell necrosis in the majority of the rabbits and sinus venosus was found in the mesenteric glands. The suprarenal glands were normal both macroscopically and microscopically.



Figures 1-4 are photographs of the left side of the rabbit's heart. Figures 5-7 are gram-stained sections of the aortic valves. The following abbreviations are used throughout: V Vegetations; VV Vegetations on the aortic Valves, VA Vegetations above the Aortic valves, VO Vegetations at the Orifice of a synonym, VM Vegetations on the wall of Myocardium; AV Aortic Valve; BA Bacterial Aggregation; E, Erythrocytes, L, Leucocytes.

Fig 1 View of left ventricle and ascending aorta showing the characteristic distribution of vegetations 24 hours after inoculation with bacteria.

Fig 2 View of heart showing left ventricle and ascending aorta showing the characteristic distribution of vegetations 48 hours after inoculation with bacteria.

Fig 3 A closer view of the aortic valve and ascending aorta seen in Fig. 1 $\times 3$

Fig 4 A closer view of the aortic valve and ascending aorta seen in Fig. 2, $\times 3$



Fig 5 A section through a cusp of the aortic valve showing a vegetation 12 hours after inoculation with bacteria, $\times 100$



Fig 6 A closer view of the vegetation seen in Fig 5 showing an aggregation of bacteria with only a slight inflammatory reaction on the adjacent valve leaflet, $\times 276$



Fig 7 A large vegetation on the valve leaflet 96 hours after inoculation with bacteria. Note the increase in the number of bacteria aggregates, $\times 40$

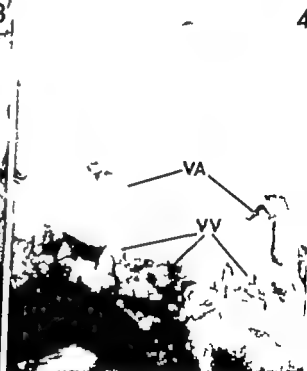
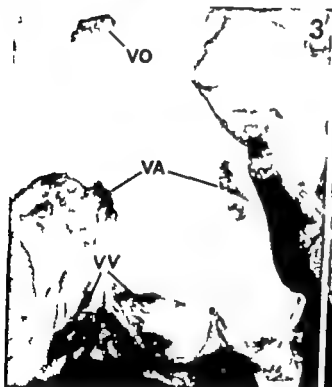
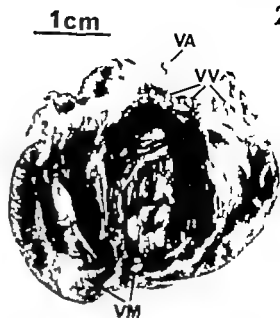
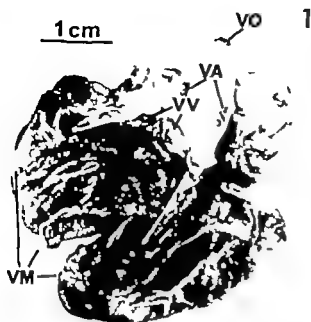
It was seldom possible to demonstrate bacteria in the organs by microscopy except for the kidneys, where they could be found in areas with infarcts.

Culture from blood and organs. During the first 48 hours after infection, the number of bacteria per ml blood was small, but after 72 hours all the rabbits had bacteraemia with 10^3 to 10^4 bacteria per ml blood (Table 1). Growth of *S. faecalis* occurred regularly from the spleen and the liver and to a lesser extent from the lungs at 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ and 6 hours after inoculation of the bacteria. Between 6 hours and 48 hours after inoculation, growth was less pronounced or absent, while after 48 hours there was again strong growth from spleen, liver and kidneys, and also from the mesenteric glands to some extent. The pleural spaces and peritoneal cavity were sterile in all cases and there was no accumulation of fluid. A few ml pericardial exudate with strong growth of *S. faecalis* were found in two of three of the spontaneously dead rabbits.

DISCUSSION

The study has shown that the presence of the catheter is not essential for the regular induction of *S. faecalis* endocarditis, nor is the continued presence of the catheter necessary for maintenance of the infection. It would appear that *S. faecalis* endocarditis provoked by this means has a fatal issue, as also observed in a yet unpublished study involving 100 rabbits. These results differ from certain previous reports in which experimental right-sided endocarditis with *S. viridans* (4), and maintenance of left-sided endocarditis with *Staphylococcus aureus* (13) and *Paradornan aeruginosa* (1) were conditional on the continued presence of the catheter during the infection. However the results are in accordance with other studies which showed that left-sided endocarditis could be maintained by *S. viridans* (14), *S. aureus* (10) and *S. faecalis* (15), even though the catheter was removed. According to the literature, the presence of the catheter during the infection provokes a more severe course of the disease, thus causing it to resemble human subacute bacterial endocarditis to a lesser extent and making it less suitable for experimental treatment.

The present study shows that the continuous deposit of fibrin, resulting in the development of vegetations is associated with continued growth of the bacteria. This is in strong contrast to the rapid elimination of the sterile vegetations after removal of the catheter (8). Some special features must pertain to the vegetations on the aortic valves, since the density of the bacteria was much greater and the vegetations larger than on the wall of the left ventricle, even though endothelial damage and preformed sterile vegetations are known also to occur regularly on the wall of the left ventricle (8).



Figures 1-4 are photographs of the left side of the rabbit's heart. Figures 5-7 are gram-stained sections of the aortic valves. The following abbreviations are used throughout: V Vegetations, VV Vegetations on the aortic valves, VA Vegetations above the Aortic valves, VO Vegetations at the Orifice of a. anomoma, VM Vegetations on the wall of Myocardium, AV Aortic Valve; BA, Bacterial Aggregation, E, Erythrocytes, L, Leucocytes.

Fig 1 View of left ventricle and ascending aorta showing the characteristic distribution of vegetations 24 hours after inoculation with bacteria

Fig 2 View of heart showing left ventricle and ascending aorta showing the characteristic distribution of vegetations 48 hours after inoculation with bacteria

Fig 3 A closer view of the aortic valve and ascending aorta seen in Fig. 1 $\times 3$

Fig 4 A closer view of the aortic valve and ascending aorta seen in Fig. 2, $\times 3$

RABBIT POLYMORPHONUCLEAR LEUKOCYTE CHEMOTACTIC FACTOR GENERATED *IN VIVO* BY *BACTEROIDES FRAGILIS* LIPOPOLYSACCHARIDE

1 Isolation and Physico-Chemical Characterization

KJELL SVEEN

Sveen, K. Rabbit polymorphonuclear leukocyte chemotactic factor generated *in vivo* by *Bacteroides fragilis* lipopolysaccharide. 1. Isolation and physico-chemical characterization. Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B, 88: 229-236 1978.

By chromatographic separation on Sephadex gels a peptide, termed the lipopolysaccharide-induced chemotactic factor (LPS-CF), has been isolated from inflammatory exudate. The exudate was obtained from Teflon® chambers implanted subcutaneously in rabbits 3 h after LPS from *Bacteroides fragilis* had been injected. Three chemotactic peaks were eluted by fractionation of the exudate on Sephadex G-200 columns, one major peak with molecular weight of approximately 16,000 and two minor peaks with molecular weights of approximately 68,000 and 7,000. Refiltration of the major peak on G-75 showed the same elution profile as that found on G-200 columns. By addition of 8 M urea to the eluate fixed only the major and the low molecular weight peaks appeared. The molecular weight of the major chemotactic peak was calculated to 16,000 on Sephadex gels, and also using SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis and equilibrium centrifugation. The chemotactic factor was quite heat-stable and was also non-dialyzable, and freezing and thawing as well as storage at 4° C for several weeks did not impede its activity. This chemotactic factor is probably identical to the cytotoxic fragment split off from C3 upon interaction with LPS.

Key words: *B. fragilis*, lipopolysaccharide, exudate, gel filtration, chemotactic factor, molecular weight determination.

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An important factor in the accumulation of polymorphonuclear leukocytes (PMNs) in the response to the endotoxic cell wall lipopolysaccharide (LPS) of Gram-negative bacteria has been thought to be complement (C) fragments (17-18, 19). Thus, the major chemotactic principle which attracts PMNs upon activation of LPS, immune complexes or a cobra venom factor with normal sera, has been shown to be attributed to a split product of the fifth complement factor (15, 17, 19). LPS activates the complement system through the alternative complement pathway (3, 4, 23). Besides inducing the generation of cytotoxins, which act directly on the leukocytes (8), other mediators of inflammation

such as opsonins (13) and anaphylatoxins (9, 10) are also elaborated.

The usefulness of wound chambers implanted subcutaneously in normal rabbits and mice, as well as in mice genetically deficient in C3, has led to a series of experiments in this laboratory on the migration of PMNs in response to LPS. Thus LPS from *Bacteroides fragilis* s.s. *fragilis* also has been found to be an active attractant on PMNs *in vivo* (22) as well as *in vitro* (21), although its endotoxic activity has been questioned by others (7). This chemotactic capacity, however, is latent and is dependent on complement for the generation of cytotoxins. The present study is concerned with both the isolation and the physico-chemical charac-

What these special features are is not known at present.

The histological picture of the septic vegetations is the same as that described by Garrison & Freedman (6) and Durack & Beeson (3), despite the fact that they used other microorganisms. The results of the present study show that the healing processes in the infected vegetations occurred later and were less complete than in the sterile vegetations (8) and showed no signs of endothelialization. In conjunction with the high frequency of septic infarcts these results indicate that a dynamic process is taking place in the infected vegetations including among other phenomena the frequent mechanical separation of small clumps of the vegetations, continued deposition of fibrin and persistent bacterial growth.

Bacteraemia would seem to be a valuable parameter indicating that bacterial endocarditis had developed and monitoring the course of the infection. On the other hand, the growth of bacteria in the various organs would seem only to reflect the degree of bacteraemia and is presumably conditional on the content of blood in the organs. This is in agreement with the observation of Durack & Beeson (3). Histological examination of the organs has not revealed pathological processes except for the kidney infarcts which must be assumed to have had some effect on the course of the endocarditis or the survival of the rabbits.

The data presented show that bacterial endocarditis can be induced with certainty in rabbits, even though the catheter is removed simultaneously with the intravenous inoculation of the bacteria. The experimental model would therefore seem to provide a good imitation of human endocarditis and to be suitable for studies of the pathophysiology of endocarditis and evaluation of the effect of antibiotics.

We are indebted to K. L. Fønnestad, V.M.D., Statens SerumInstitut, for provision and maintenance of the rabbits. We are grateful to Mrs. U. A. S. Petersen for technical assistance and to Miss A. Overgaard and Mr. F. Laurson for photographic assistance.

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Gel Layer Chromatography

Amo acid analysis Samples of 1 mg of the pooled, dialyzed and lyophilized LPS-CF were hydrolyzed in 6 N HCl at 105°C for 18 h and prepared for analysis by gas layer chromatography according to Reisch & Guterlir (14).

Analysis of sialones and hexosamines The preparing of samples of the LPS-CF for the detection of sialones and hexosamines, as well as the analysis of the samples, was performed as described previously (20).

Rabbit Polymorphonuclear Leukocytes

Polymorphonuclear leukocytes (PMNs) were harvested from the peritoneal cavity of New Zealand White rabbits 8-10 h after local injection of 200 µl of a solution containing 0.1 per cent glycogen (E. Merck A.G. Darmstadt, W.-Germany) in sterile saline. Garamycin® and fungizone® were added in amounts of 50 and 2.5 µg per ml of the glycogen solution, respectively. The harvesting and the isolation of the cells was performed as described earlier (21). After the isolation, the PMNs were resuspended in Gey's medium containing antibiotics in amounts equal to those in the glycogen solution. The Gey's medium was then adjusted to 2 per cent (w/v) solution with BSA (Armour Pharmaceutical Co. Ltd.), one ml of the PMN suspension containing approximately 10⁷ cells.

Measurement of Chemotaxis

The migration of PMNs was determined by the Boyden Microprobe technique (2) using a modified Boyden chamber (19) (Neuroprobe, Bethesda, Md. USA). The upper compartment of the chamber received 4-10⁶ cells. These were centrifuged down on a Milipore membrane (Neuroprobe) with pore size of 3 µ before placing the membrane in the chamber (21). The lower compartment contained the test medium. The chambers were incubated at 37°C in humid air for 3 h. Before the filters were removed, fixed, stained and mounted as previously stated (21), the cells on the upper surface of the filters were carefully sucked off. Five fields of the lowermost surface of the filters were selected for counting at magnification of X320 with the aid of a microgrid (Laser B order 10 × 10 mm).

EXPERIMENTS AND RESULTS

In preliminary experiments inflammatory exudate, aspirated from the chambers at different time intervals after LPS injection, were fractionated on Sephadex G-200 columns and the eluate tested for chemotactic activity in modified Boyden chambers. In these experiments the highest activity was found in the eluate after fractionation of exudates aspirated 3 h after local injection of LPS. This exudate was, therefore, gel-filtered in order to isolate the LPS-induced PMN chemotactic factor.

Aliquots of 4 ml exudate were passed through

G-200 columns. The major chemotactic peak was always found in the 16,000 MW region (K_{av} 0.71), slightly ahead of the cytochrome C marker (Fig. 1). Slighter but still significant chemotactic activity was retained in the eluate with peaks corresponding to K_{av} 0.41 (MW 68,000) and K_{av} 0.92 (MW 7,000). Invariably a fourth peak with K_{av} of 0.08 indicative of a MW of 300,000 was found. No significant activity could be found in the void volume or in the eluate of non-stimulated exudate.

Collected fractions of the major peak corresponding to a MW range of 12 000 to 20 000 were dialyzed, lyophilized and pooled. This pooled sample was reconstituted with eluent buffer to a volume of 0.5 ml and applied to the Sephadex G-75 column. In these experiments, three peaks of chemotactic activity were constantly found in the eluate (Fig. 1). These peaks showed the same pattern as those found in the G-200 eluate with respect to MW and mutual chemotactic activity. The major peak corresponding to a MW of 16,000 (K_{av} 0.37), and that of the two other peaks were calculated to 7 000 (K_{av} 0.56) and 68 000 (K_{av} 0.05). No activity could be detected in the void volume. There was no significant change in the chemotactic activity of the fractions before and after dialysis.

In another experiment, the collected pooled fractions of the major chemotactic peak eluted on G-200 columns were re-passed over a Sephadex G 75 column, equilibrated and eluted with 8 M urea in PBS. After dialysis of the collected fractions they were examined for chemotactic capacity on rabbit peritoneal PMNs. No activity was found either in the void volume or in the MW region corresponding to 68,000. Furthermore, the chemotactic peak with a MW of 7,000 now exhibited almost the same chemotactic activity as the peak eluted slightly behind the myoglobin marker (Fig. 2). For characterization and further study of the chemotactic factor only the central fractions of the major peak eluted without urea on Sephadex G-75 columns were used.

The MW of the major chemotactic peak (LPS-CF) in ten G-75 runs calculated from proteins of known molecular weights was 16,000 with a standard deviation of 470. In equilibrium centrifugation the MW of the LPS-CF calculated from two runs was 16 000. In polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis, a single band was seen after protein staining. In SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis the LPS-CF moved between the cytochrome C and the light IgG chain, and its MW was determined to be 16 400 when the moving front of the protein bands were used for calculation (Fig. 3).

The results of the quantitative amino acid analysis are summarized in Table 1. Hexosamines or neutral sugars were not detected. The mean

teristics of the PMN chemotactic factor present in the inflammatory exudate after injection of *Bacteroides fragilis* LPS into wound chambers implanted in rabbits.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Source and Preparation of LPS

LPS (endotoxin) was isolated from *Bacteroides fragilis* subspecies *fragilis* strain Lile E 323 by phenol water extraction (27). Further purification of the LPS by ultracentrifugation and treatment of the pellet with ribonuclease and deoxyribonuclease has been reported previously (20). Stock suspensions of LPS containing 2.5 mg per ml was made in sterile isotonic saline. This was treated ultrasonically (MSE/Varian 60W 20 kc/s) at 0° C for 2 min.

Inflammatory Exudate

Five Teflon® chambers (12) were implanted subcutaneously on each lateral side of the abdomen of six months-old New Zealand White rabbits as described before (24). Six days after implantation the exudate was aspirated, and suspensions of 100 µg of LPS-E 323 in 0.4 ml saline were injected into each chamber. Three h thereafter the formed exudate was aspirated and immediately chilled to 0° C. The pooled exudate was centrifuged ($28\,000 \times g$ for 20 min) at 4° C in a Servall RC 2 centrifuge (Servall Inc. Norwalk, Conn. USA) and 0.1 per cent merthiolat (w/v) was added to the supernatant. The supernatant was thereafter placed in a water bath at 56° C for 30 min before being frozen at -25° C and stored until used. The non-stimulated exudate was treated in the same way. The exudates were checked for contaminating microorganisms by microscopy of Gram stained preparations and from anaerobic and aerobic incubation on blood agar plates.

Gel Filtration

The LPS-induced inflammatory exudate was filtered on Sephadex® gels (Pharmacia Fine Chemicals AB Uppsala, Sweden) at room temperature. A Sephadex G-200 column (2.5 × 43 cm) was equilibrated and eluted with phosphate - (0.02 M) buffered (pH 7.2) isotonic saline (PBS) containing sodium azide (0.02 per cent w/v). The flow rate was 4.5 ml/h, and fractions of 3.37 ml were collected. Another Sephadex column of G 75 gel (2.5 × 59 cm) was stabilized and eluted with the same buffer at a flow rate of 5.25 ml/h. Fractions of 3.95 ml were collected. The Sephadex G 75 column was also prepared and eluted with 8 M urea in PBS. Optical density (OD) was recorded at 280 nm. The columns were calibrated with bovine serum albumin (BSA) with a molecular weight (MW) of 67 000, cytochrome C (MW 12 400), myoglobin (MW 17 000) (Koch-Light Laboratories Ltd. Colnbrook, Bucks. England) and insulin (MW 6 000) (Sigma Chemical Company St. Louis, Mo. USA). Non-stimulated exudate aspirated before injection of LPS into the chambers was used as controls. The MW of the peaks was calculated according to Andrews (1),

using the K_{av} values of the collected fractions entering the highest chemotaxis.

Dialysis

Dialysis of the collected fractions was performed in tubing with a molecular cut-off of 3,500 (Arthur H. Thomas Co., Philadelphia Pa. USA). After dialysis against step-wise diluted eluent buffer in distilled water at 4° C for 24 h, the fractions were lyophilized.

Equilibrium Centrifugation

Suspensions of the major chemotactic peak eluted on G 75 columns and termed the LPS-induced PMN chemotactic factor (LPS-CF) were made in the same buffer as used in Sephadex gel chromatography and adjusted to an optical density of 0.5 at 280 nm. The approximate MW was then determined from data of equilibrium centrifugation using a Centriscan ultracentrifuge (MSE Centriscan 75).

Analytical Gel Electrophoresis

Polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis was performed in glass tubes (0.5 × 7.5 cm) in a Shandon apparatus (Shandon Scientific Company Ltd. London). The separating gel contained 12.5 per cent (w/v) acrylamide (British Drug Houses, Ltd. Poole, England). The same buffer (0.37 M tris-glycine, pH 9.5) was used both in the gels and in the electrode vessels (5). When sodium dodecyl sulphate (SDS) was used this was at a concentration of 0.1 per cent (w/v) both in the gels and in the reservoirs. Samples were dialyzed overnight at room temperature against a buffer containing 70 ml tris-glycine buffer, 10 ml concentrated glycerol and 1 g of SDS, made up to 100 ml with distilled water and to which 0.002 per cent bromophenol blue had been added. The samples were placed in a water bath at 100° C for 1-2 min. Samples of 10 µl containing approximately 100 µg of the freeze-dried LPS-CF was mixed with 10 µl of 40 per cent sucrose in distilled water and layered on top of the gels. Stacking was done using a constant voltage of 20 V which was then increased to 100 V until the tracking dye had reached the lower end of the tube. The gels were stained for 1 h in a solution of 0.2 per cent (w/v) Coomassie brilliant blue (R250) in 50 per cent methanol in water to which 7 per cent of glacial acetic acid was added shortly before use. De-staining was performed in a solution containing 4 per cent methanol and 7 per cent acetic acid. The following protein markers were used for approximate MW determinations and run electrophoretically: cytochrome C (Koch-Light) and human IgG (AB Mab, Stockholm) which was reduced with 5 per cent 2-mercaptoethanol in a water bath at 100° C for 2 min.

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The protein content of the LPS-CF was estimated by the Folin-Ciocalteu phenol method, according to Lowry *et al.* (11), using BSA (Armour Pharmaceutical Company Ltd. Eastbourne, England) as the standard.

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Analytical Gel Electrophoresis

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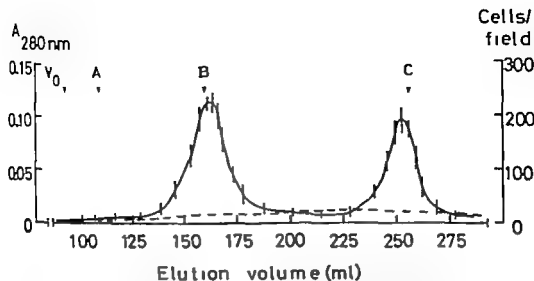


Fig 2 The elution profile of the major peak (molecular weight 16,000) of chemotactic activity (designated B in the upper panel on Fig 1), eluted on a Sephadex G-75 column with 8 M urea in phosphate (0.02 M) buffered (pH 7.2) saline. Chemotactic activity expressed as number of cells per high-power field (solid curve), standard deviation for triplicate chambers denoted by vertical bar. Broken curve indicates absorbance at 280 nm. V_0 , void volume. Arrow heads indicate elution peak of BSA (A), myoglobin (B) and insulin (C).

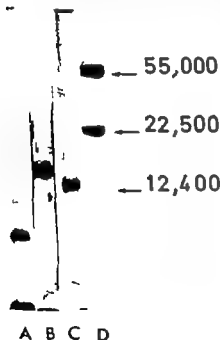


Fig 3 Sodium dodecyl sulphate (SDS) polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis of the LPS-induced PMN chemotactic factor (B), cytochrome C (C) and reduced human IgG (D). The electrophoretic pattern of the chemotactic factor is shown in the gel (A) run without SDS.

TABLE 1 A Quantitative Determination of the Amino Acid Composition of the PMN Chemotactic Factor Isolated from LPS Induced Inflammatory Exudate (pmoles/mg)

Values are the Mean Obtained from two Samples

| Amino acid | pmoles/mg samples |
|---------------|-------------------|
| Alanine | 0.81 |
| Valine | 0.77 |
| Glycine | 3.77 |
| Isoleucine | 0.55 |
| Leucine | 1.05 |
| Proline | 1.00 |
| Threonine | 0.96 |
| Serine | 3.73 |
| Methionine | 5.19 |
| Phenylalanine | 0.57 |
| Aspartic acid | 1.56 |
| Glutamine | 3.61 |
| Tyrosine | 1.43 |
| Lysine | 0.56 |
| Tryptophan | N.D. |
| Histidine | N.D. |
| Arginine | N.D. |
| Cysteine | N.D. |

N.D. - not determined

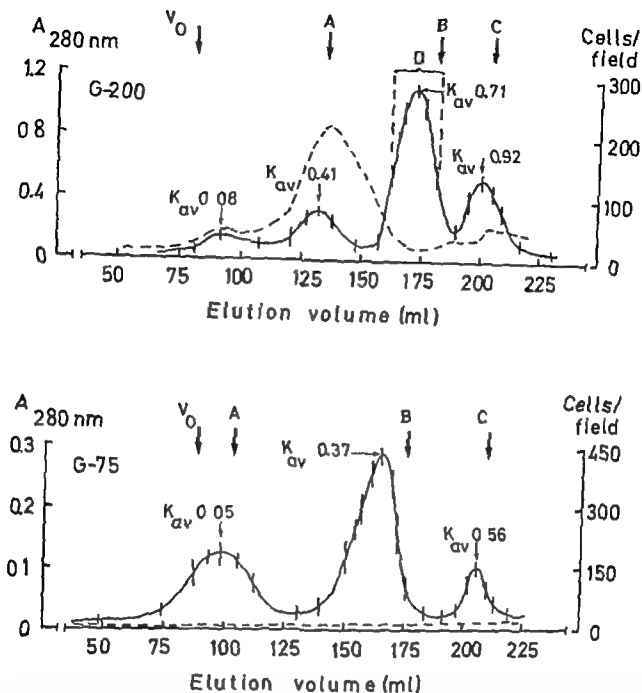


Fig 1 Upper panel: the elution profile of LPS-induced inflammatory exudate on Sephadex G-200. Lower panel: the elution profile of the major peak of chemotactic activity (pooled fractions designated D in the upper panel) on a Sephadex G-75 column. Elution fluid: phosphate (0.02M) buffered (pH 7.2) saline. Chemotactic activity expressed as number of cells per high power field (solid curve). Vertical bar denotes standard deviation for triplicate chambers. Absorbance at 280 nm is indicated by broken curve. V: void volume. Arrows indicate elution peak of BSA (A), cytochrome C (B) and insulin (C).

protein content was 89.0 per cent with a standard deviation of 5.1.

The activity of the LPS-induced PMN chemotactic factor when suspended in isotonic saline remained unchanged after storage for five weeks at 4°C or when frozen at -25°C and thawed at 4°C

three times (Table 2). Heating at 56°C for 1 h in a water-bath did not abolish the activity of LPS-CF. On the contrary a slightly increased activity was found. The activity of LPS-CF was not abolished completely before heating at 90°C for 1 h in a water-bath.

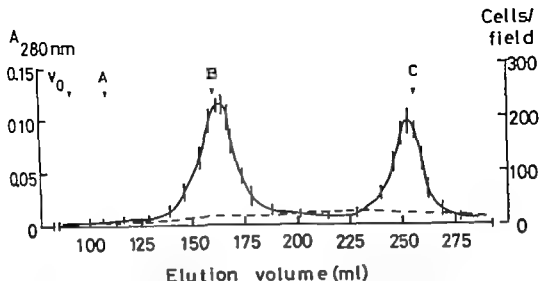


Fig. 2 The elution profile of the major peak (molecular weight 18 000) of chemotactic activity (designated B in the upper panel on Fig. 1), eluted on a Sephadex G-75 column with 8 M urea in phosphate (0.02 M) buffered (pH 7.2) saline. Chemotactic activity expressed as number of cells per high-power field (solid curve), standard deviation for triplicate chambers denoted by vertical bar. Broken curve indicates absorbance at 280 nm. V₀, void volume. Arrow leads indicate elution peak of BSA (A), myoglobin (B) and insulin (C).

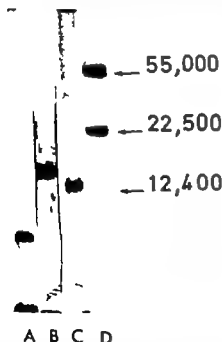


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| Serine | 3.73 |
| Methionine | 5.19 |
| Phenylalanine | 0.57 |
| Aspartic acid | 1.56 |
| Glutamine | 3.61 |
| Tyrosine | 1.43 |
| Lysine | 0.56 |
| Tryptophan | N.D. |
| Histidine | N.D. |
| Arginine | N.D. |
| Cysteine | N.D. |

N.D. - not determined

TABLE 2 *Stability of the PMN Chemotactic Factor Isolated by Gel Filtration from LPS Induced Inflammatory Exudate in Wound Chambers Implanted Subcutaneously in Rabbits*

| Treatment of factors | Chemotactic activity ^b Mean \pm s.d. |
|-----------------------------------|--|
| No treatment | 154 \pm 16 |
| 4° C for 5 weeks | 152 \pm 10 |
| Frozen (-25° C) and thawed (4° C) | 153 \pm 20 |
| 56° C 1 h | 159 \pm 19 |
| 70° C 1 h | 54 \pm 14 |
| 80° C 1 h | 48 \pm 17 |
| 90° C 1 h | 3 \pm 4 |

Stock suspension of 125 μ g/ml sterile isotonic saline prepared and 0.2 ml tested in each Boyden chamber

^b Migrated PMNs per high-power field calculated from triplicate filters.

DISCUSSION

The chemotactic activity of LPS-induced inflammatory exudate was examined in order to determine its relationship to previously described chemotactic mediators. The fractionation procedures showed the major chemotactic peak to be eluted at a k_{av} of 0.37 on a Sephadex G-75 column, corresponding to a molecular weight of 16 000. In this respect, the presently reported LPS-induced PMN chemotactic factor seems consistent with that reported by others when fractionating serum was pretreated with LPS (19) or with immune complexes (17). Besides, this chemotactic factor also seems to be consistent with that isolated from LPS-induced intraperitoneal exudate of guinea pigs (18).

In repeated chromatographic separations of exudate on Sephadex G-200 columns, the peak of activity with a MW of 300 000 was not always found. This peak accounted for only about 15 per cent of the activity present in the major peak. This high molecular weight peak might be in accordance with that of the chemotactic trimolecular complex CS 6.7 described by Ward *et al.* (26).

The peak of chemotactic activity eluted just ahead of the BSA marker was not found when eluted with 8 M urea in PBS. This interesting finding indicates that the peak with a MW of 68 000 when eluted without urea on G 200 and G-75 was an aggregation product. Its chemotactic material may possibly be made up of four units of the chemotactic material present in the peak with a MW of 16 000. Thus, this peak of chemotactic capacity might not be a leukotactic mediator independent of the main chemotactic factor as has been suggested by others (19).

The peak of activity representing MW 16 000 was found to contain the majority of the chemotactic capacity eluted. The MW of the present cytotoxin thus fits well with that of a chemotactic factor of MW 15 000 generated in guinea pig serum upon treatment with LPS which has been described as a split product of CS (19). Besides being highly chemotactic, the cytotoxin C5a also possesses anaphylatoxic activity (16). It has been proposed that this property of C5a is comparable with that of the classical anaphylatoxin (6, 9). If this is so, this cleavage product of C5 indeed should be considered an important mediator of the inflammatory process.

Recently Winkler (28) isolated two different peptides, *viz.* classical anaphylatoxin and cytotoxin, from rat serum treated with immune complexes. Chemotactic activity for PMNs was found to be a major property of this anaphylatoxin-cytotoxin-leukotaxis (ACL)-system (29). Thus the anaphylatoxin peptide is active alone, whereas neither the anaphylatoxin, nor the cytotoxin has chemotactic activity. However upon recombination of the two peptides this complex is highly chemotactic. The relationship between this anaphylatoxin and C5a is questionable, but it seems likely that they are identical.

The chemotactic activity of the peak with MW 7 000 was also repeatedly found after all fractionation procedures, and the activity approached that of the major chemotactic peak with a MW of 16 000 when eluted with urea. This might indicate that the active material eluted in the MW region of 7 000 could be comprised of cytotoxin and anaphylatoxin in a dissociated state.

The SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis indicated that the peak of MW of 16 000 was a homogeneous peptide. An apparently pure preparation then seemed to be obtained by deliberately discarding marginal fractions of the peak of MW 16 000 in the chromatographic separations. The concentration of SDS (0.1 per cent) used, may thus counteract the aggregation but does not promote a dissociation of the chemotactic principle. The estimated MW of the LPS-CF in Sephadex G-75 runs agrees with that calculated from equilibrium centrifugation.

LPS-CF was found to be rather resistant to physical treatments, and its activity was not destroyed before heating in a water-bath at 90° C for 1 h (cf Table 2). In addition, this cytotoxin was non-dialyzable as were those isolated from strangulation fluids of rats (25), and those generated in rabbit serum by immune complexes (8).

The results of this study indicate that the PMN chemotactic factor isolated from LPS-induced inflammatory exudate in rabbits is identical in nature

and activity so that isolated from guinea pig serum upon interaction with LPS (17). This implies that C5 is the parent molecule from which the active fragment is split off.

Furthermore, this finding supports the assumption that the peak with a MW of 7 000 consists of the C5a in a dissociated state, i.e. the classical anaphylatoxin and the coccytotaxin peptides and that the dissociated state of the C5a may also be increased when urea is used in the elution fluid. A re-association of the peptides present in the low molecular weight peak possibly occurs during dialysis which restores the chemotactic activity. According to the findings reported by Winkler *et al* (29), this would imply that chemotaxis is not mediated by one single peptide, but by an interplay of peptides.

The equilibrium centrifugation was kindly performed by Mr Alex Bergé, Dept of Biochemistry University of Bergen.

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RABBIT POLYMORPHONUCLEAR LEUKOCYTE CHEMOTACTIC FACTOR GENERATED *IN VIVO* BY *BACTEROIDES FRAGILIS* LIPOPOLYSACCHARIDE

II Antigenic and Biologic Properties

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Sveen, K. Rabbit polymorphonuclear leukocyte chemotactic factor generated *in vivo* by *Bacteroides fragilis* lipopolysaccharide. II. Antigenic and biologic properties. Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B 86: 237-245, 1978.

Preparations of the polymorphonuclear leukocyte (PMN) chemotactic factor isolated from lipopolysaccharide (LPS)-induced inflammatory exudates in rabbits were immunogenic in guinea pigs. Complete fusion of the precipitation lines produced against anti-CF by LPS-CF (molecular weight 16,000) and material eluted on Sephadex G-200 columns with molecular weights (MW) of 68,000, 16,000 and 7,000, was found. Also, the chemotactically active material with MW of 68,000 and 7,000 eluted on G-75 columns after fractionation of the fraction of MW 16,000 from the G-200 eluate was antigenically identical to LPS-CF in double diffusion in agar. Normal rabbit serum (NRS) incubated with LPS, LPS-induced wound chamber exudate and NRS alone gave lines of precipitation against the anti-LPS-CF were identical to that of LPS-CF. The capacity of LPS-CF to attract PMNs was significantly higher than that of LPS, and a peak in the number of PMNs in the exudate of wound chambers implanted in rabbits was found 4 h after the local injection of LPS-CF. When injected intraperitoneally in CS deficient mice, LPS-CF stimulated a PMN migration which was only slightly below that in CS normal mice. Antisera to LPS-CF inhibited the chemotactic activity of LPS-CF as well as that of LPS-NRS when the experiments were tested using the Boyden's technique. Also, preincubation of PMNs with LPS-CF suppressed the migration towards a chemotactic gradient of LPS-CF molecules of these PMNs.

Key words: *B. fragilis*, lipopolysaccharide, exudate, chemotactic factor, leukocyte chemotaxis, C deficient mice.

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The cell wall lipopolysaccharide (LPS) of *Bacteroides fragilis* produces primary skin inflammation and local and generalized Schwartzman reactions in rabbits (12). It is lethal to mice and chick embryos, is pyrogenic and gelates *Limulus* amoebocyte lysate (18). Furthermore, a chemotactic activity for rabbit polymorphonuclear leukocytes (PMNs) is elaborated *in vitro* upon interaction of LPS (endotoxin) with normal guinea pig serum (13).

Recent experiments showed that when injected into Teflon® chambers implanted in rabbits and mice, *B. fragilis* LPS evoked migration of PMNs into the chambers (14, 15). The number of PMNs in the chamber exudate was dependent on the quantity of LPS injected up to a certain amount. Independent of the amount of LPS injected, a maximal cell accumulation was found 5 h after stimulation with LPS (17). In mice genetically deficient of the fifth complement factor (C5), a delayed and insignificant

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number of cells accumulated (15). No chemotaxis was generated *in vitro* upon incubation of LPS with C5 deficient serum whereas a normal chemotaxis was induced when serum from guinea pigs genetically deficient in C4 was used (15). These results suggest that *B. fragilis* LPS induce generation of a chemotactic factor via the alternative complement pathway and that C5 is the key substrate.

By Sephadex gel filtration of the exudate induced by LPS from *B. fragilis* three peaks with chemotactic activity was obtained (16). The major chemotactic peak was due to a non-dialyzable peptide with a molecular weight (MW) of 16 000. One minor peak with chemotactic activity supposedly was due to aggregated material with a MW of 68 000 and another small peak with chemotactic activity was due to a component with MW of 7 000. The present paper deals with the biological activity of the chemotactically active peptide, and its antigenic relationship to the aggregated material and to the low molecular weight component.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Isolation of the LPS Induced PMN Chemotactic Factor

The isolation of LPS from *Bacteroides fragilis* subspecies *fragilis*, strain Lille E 323 (12), the implantation in rabbits of Teflon® chambers (17) and the induction of inflammatory exudate and chemotactic factor generation by LPS (16) were carried out as earlier described. The fractionation of the LPS-induced inflammatory exudate by gel filtration on a Sephadex G 200 column (Pharmacia Fine Chemicals AB, Uppsala, Sweden) and further filtration of the major peak of chemotactic activity having a molecular weight (MW) of 16 000 on a G 75 column, have been described in detail in a preceding paper (16). The centrally collected fractions of the major peak of chemotactic activity (MW = 16 000) eluted on the G-75 column were lyophilized and termed LPS-CF (16). Analysis of LPS-CF in sodium dodecyl sulphate (SDS) polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis showed only one band after protein staining (16).

Collection of Serum

Blood from rabbits was obtained by cardiac puncture and the serum isolated by clotting of the blood at room temperature for 1 h and then at 4°C overnight. The serum was pipetted off and centrifuged (IEC Universal Model UV) at $3\,000 \times g$ for 10 min, and kept in aliquots of 1 ml at -25°C until required.

Production of Antiserum

Antiserum to LPS-CF was raised in guinea pigs (400-600 g) by the injection into the hind foot pads of 0.1 ml of complete Freund's adjuvant (Difco, Detroit, Mich. USA) and 200 µg of LPS-CF in 0.1 ml of sterile isotonic saline. At days 7 and 14 after injection, equal volumes of antigen (200 µg in 0.1 ml of saline) and incomplete Freund's adjuvant (0.1 ml) were given intramuscularly at

the level of the groin. Three weeks after the first injection the animals were bled by cardiac puncture. The serum was isolated as described above, decomplexed in a water-bath at 56°C for 30 min and stored in aliquots of 1 ml at -25°C until used.

Double Diffusion In Agar

Double diffusion tests were carried out in 1 per cent agar gel (Noble Agar, Difco) in distilled water. Undiluted antiserum and test materials were placed in wells with diameters of 3 mm at a distance of 7 mm. Following incubation for 18 h in a moist chamber at room temperature, the precipitation lines were recorded and photographed before or after staining with 0.1 per cent Amido Black 10 B. The substances tested in double diffusion in agar were prepared as follows: the central fractions of each peak of chemotactic activity in the eluate from Sephadex G-75 columns, were pooled and lyophilized. Test suspensions of each of these peaks were prepared in saline at a concentration of 1 mg per ml. PMN chemotactic factor was generated by the incubation of endotoxin in normal rabbit serum (250 µg/ml) at 37°C for 30 min, following 56°C for 30 min. After centrifugation of the incubated mixture at $22\,000 \times g$ for 20 min at 4°C in a Sorvall RC 2 centrifuge (Sorvall Inc., Norwalk, Conn. USA) the supernatant was pipetted off and tested. LPS-induced inflammatory exudate for testing in double diffusion was raised in *in vivo* chambers implanted in rabbits and was handled as described before (16). NRS was incubated at 37°C for 30 min and thereafter at 56°C for 30 min before being tested.

Immunoelectrophoresis

This was performed using an LKB apparatus (LKB Produkter, Stockholm). One per cent agar gel (Noble Agar, Difco) in Veronal buffer (ionic strength 0.047) was employed and electrophoresis was run for about 80 min with Veronal buffer of pH 8.6 and ionic strength 0.050 with a constant voltage of 6 to 8 V/cm.

Immune Precipitates

A stock suspension of LPS in Gey's medium (1 mg/ml) was treated ultrasonically (CISE/Mallard 60W, 20 kc/s) at 0°C for 1 min. Serial dilution (200 to 3.12 µg) in 0.15 ml (Gey's medium) were made and the same volume of NRS added to each. After incubation at 37°C in a water-bath for 30 min and decomplexation at 56°C for 30 min, the mixtures were centrifuged ($22\,000 \times g$ for 70 min at 4°C). The supernatants were pipetted off and 0.15 ml anti-LPS-CF serum, which was diluted 1 to 2 in isotonic saline, was added to each dilution (6). Immune precipitates were also prepared by mixing 0.15 ml anti-LPS-CF serum to the same volume of Gey's balanced salt solution (Gey's medium), containing varying amounts of LPS-CF (stock suspension of LPS-CF in Gey's medium 1 mg/ml). The concentration of LPS-CF in each dilution step differed with 10 µg and dilutions ranging from 10 to 100 µg were made. Precipitates were allowed to form by placing all of the reaction mixtures in a water-bath at 37°C for 2 h and thereafter at 4°C for 48 h. The mixtures were centrifuged

0.000 x g for 20 min at 4°C), and the precipitates added to ice in ice-cooled tubes and resuspended in 0.1 N NaOH. The optical density of the precipitates were measured at 220 nm and the point of maximum precipitate determined. The supernatants of the various saline mixtures were further prepared and tested for chemotactic activity as described in Experiments and Results.

Polymorphonuclear Leukocytes

Polymorphonuclear leukocytes (PMNs) were obtained from the peritoneal cavity of New Zealand White rabbits 4-10 h after intraperitoneal (i.p.) injection of 200 ml of a saline containing 0.1 per cent phytohemagglutinin (E. Merck AG Darmstadt, W. Germany) in sterile isotonic saline (Gibco) (Schering Corporation, Kenilworth, NJ, USA) and farnesin[®] (Squibb Flow Laboratories, Irvine, Scotland) were added in amounts of 30 and 2.5 µg per ml solution, respectively. The PMNs were harvested and isolated from the exudate as described before (13). The PMNs were resuspended in Gey's medium containing antibiotics and bovine serum albumin (Amersham Pharmaceutival Company Ltd, Eastbourne, England) (2 per cent w/v) and adjusted to a concentration of 10⁷ cells per ml. More than 93 per cent of the cells retained staining with trypan blue.

Measurement of Chemotactic Activity

In vitro chemotaxis was estimated with the Boyden-Milipore technique (1), using a modified Boyden chamber (11) (Neuroprobe, Bethesda, Md., USA). The two compartments of the chamber were separated with a Milipore filter (Milipore Filter Corp., Bedford, Mass., USA) with a pore size of 3 µ. The upper compartment received 4 x 10⁶ cells which were centrifuged down on the filter before this was placed into the chamber (13). The test media were placed in the lower compartment and were prepared as described in Experiments and Results. After incubation of the chambers in humid air at 37°C for 3 h, the cells on the upper surface of the filters were gently scraped off. The filters were fixed, stained and counted as previously described (13). For calculation of the chemotactic activity five high-power fields of the lowermost surface of the filters were selected and the cells counted under light microscopy at a magnification of X 320, using a microgrid (Lustz-Wendler 10 x 10 mm) (13).

PMN Preincubation in Chemotactic Media

Rabbit peritoneal PMNs were incubated at 37°C for 30 min with LPS-CF at various concentrations in Gey's medium. PMNs in Gey's medium only were incubated and used as the control. After washing the PMNs three times with ice-cooled Gey's medium, they were stimulated for migration against a chemotactic gradient consisting of 50 µg/ml of LPS-CF in Gey's medium in the modified Boyden chamber.

Measurement of Leukocyte Migration into Wound Chambers

Teflon[®] chambers were implanted subcutaneously in six-month-old New Zealand White rabbits, five cham-

bers on each lateral side of the abdomen as described earlier (17). The exudate formed six days after implantation was aspirated and immediately chilled to 0°C and replaced by a suspension of 25 µg of LPS-CF or 25 µg of LPS in 0.4 ml of isotonic saline. Saline alone was used as control. The amounts of exudate (wound fluid) collected from each chamber before and 5 h after injection of test suspension or saline, were measured and the number of leukocytes per chamber was calculated as before (14).

Kinetics of Leukocyte Migration into Wound Chambers

At different time intervals after injection of 25 µg of LPS-CF in 0.4 ml of sterile isotonic saline into the wound chambers, exudate was withdrawn from successive chambers and the number of leukocytes per µl of exudate calculated as before (17). The relative percentages of PMNs and mononuclear leukocytes (MNs) in the exudate was calculated as previously (17). The exudate aspirated six days after the implantation of the chambers was examined for contaminating microorganisms by microscopy of Gram-stained preparations. Aerobic and anaerobic incubation on blood agar plates was also performed.

Measurement of Migration of Leukocytes into the Peritoneal Cavity

Migration of PMNs into the peritoneal cavity was tested by injection of 25 µg of LPS-CF in 0.9 ml of isotonic saline and of 25 µg of LPS in 0.9 ml isotonic saline i.p. into genetically CS deficient (CSD) mice of the strain DBA/2J weighing 28 ± 2 g and in CS normal (CSN) mice of the strain NMRI weighing 32 ± 3 g. Mice of both sexes were used, and the strains were caged separately. The mice were killed after 5 h. The harvesting of the cells from the peritoneal cavity as well as the calculation of the total number of leukocytes present in the exudate harvested from each mouse were performed as described before (15).

The media used in the experiments were sterilized before use by passage through a filter with a pore size of 0.45 µ (Milipore Filter Corp.).

Statistical Method

Standard deviation was calculated as previously (17). For evaluation of differences in chemotactic activity the Wilcoxon rank test for two samples was used (2). Values of $p \leq 0.05$ were accepted as statistically significant.

EXPERIMENTS AND RESULTS

Injection into guinea pigs of LPS-CF elicited an antibody response with a reciprocal precipitin titre varying from 16 to 64. This antibody gave only one precipitation line in double diffusion against the antigen.

The chemotactically active materials with MW of 68 000 and 7 000 present in the eluate from Sephadex G-200 and G-75 columns, were tested in agar double diffusion against antiserum to LPS-CF. As shown in Fig. 1 the three peaks of chemotactic

number of cells accumulated (15). No chemotaxis was generated *in vitro* upon incubation of LPS with C5 deficient serum whereas a normal chemotaxis was induced when serum from guinea pigs genetically deficient in C4 was used (15). These results suggest that *B. fragilis* LPS induce generation of a chemotactic factor via the alternative complement pathway and that C5 is the key substrate.

By Sephadex gel filtration of the exudate induced by LPS from *B. fragilis* three peaks with chemotactic activity was obtained (16). The major chemotactic peak was due to a non-dialyzable peptide with a molecular weight (MW) of 16 000. One minor peak with chemotactic activity supposedly was due to aggregated material with a MW of 68 000 and another small peak with chemotactic activity was due to a component with MW of 7 000. The present paper deals with the biological activity of the chemotactically active peptide, and its antigenic relationship to the aggregated material and to the low molecular weight component.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Isolation of the LPS Induced PMN Chemotactic Factor

The isolation of LPS from *Bacteroides fragilis* subspecies *fragilis*, strain Lille E 323 (12), the implantation in rabbits of Teflon® chambers (17) and the induction of inflammatory exudate and chemotactic factor generation by LPS (16) were carried out as earlier described. The fractionation of the LPS-induced inflammatory exudate by gel filtration on a Sephadex G-200 column (Pharmacia Fine Chemicals AB, Uppsala, Sweden) and further filtration of the major peak of chemotactic activity having a molecular weight (MW) of 16 000 on a G 75 column, have been described in detail in a preceding paper (16). The centrally collected fractions of the major peak of chemotactic activity (MW = 16 000) eluted on the G 75 column were lyophilized and termed LPS-CF (16). Analysis of LPS-CF in sodium dodecyl sulphate (SDS) polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis showed only one band after protein staining (16).

Collection of Serum

Blood from rabbits was obtained by cardiac puncture and the serum isolated by clotting of the blood at room temperature for 1 h and then at 4°C overnight. The serum was pipetted off and centrifuged (IEC Universal Model UV) at 3 000 × g for 10 min, and kept in aliquots of 1 ml at -25°C until required.

Production of Antiserum

Antiserum to LPS-CF was raised in guinea pigs (400–600 g) by the injection into the hind foot pads of 0.1 ml of complete Freund's adjuvant (Difco, Detroit, Mich. USA) and 200 µg of LPS-CF in 0.1 ml of sterile isotonic saline. At days 7 and 14 after injection, equal volumes of antigen (200 µg in 0.1 ml of saline) and incomplete Freund's adjuvant (0.1 ml) were given intramuscularly at

the level of the groin. Three weeks after the first injection the animals were bled by cardiac puncture. The serum was isolated as described above, decontaminated in a water-bath at 56°C for 30 min and stored in aliquots of 1 ml at -25°C until used.

Double Diffusion in Agar

Double diffusion tests were carried out in 1 per cent agar gel (Noble Agar, Difco) in distilled water. Unclotted antiserum and test materials were placed in wells with diameters of 3 mm at a distance of 7 mm. Following incubation for 18 h in a moist chamber at room temperature, the precipitation lines were recorded and photographed before or after staining with 0.1 per cent Amido Black 10 B. The substances tested in double diffusion in agar were prepared as follows: the central fractions of each peak of chemotactic activity in the eluate from Sephadex G-75 columns, were pooled and lyophilized. Test suspensions of each of these peaks were prepared in saline at a concentration of 1 mg per ml. PMN chemotactic factor was generated by the incubation of endotoxin in normal rabbit serum (250 µg/ml) at 37°C for 30 min, following 56°C for 30 min. After centrifugation of the incubated mixture at 28 000 × g for 20 min at 4°C in a Sorvall RC 2 centrifuge (Sorvall Inc., Norwalk, Conn. USA), the supernatant was pipetted off and tested. LPS-induced inflammatory exudate for testing in double diffusion was raised in *in vivo* chambers implanted in rabbits and was handled as described before (16). NRS was incubated at 37°C for 30 min and thereafter at 56°C for 30 min before being tested.

Immunoelectrophoresis

This was performed using an LKB apparatus (LKB Produkter Stockholm). One per cent agar gel (Noble Agar, Difco) in Veronal buffer (ionic strength 0.037) was employed, and electrophoresis was run for about 80 min with Veronal buffer of pH 8.6 and ionic strength 0.050 with a constant voltage of 6 to 8 V/cm.

Immune Precipitates

A stock suspension of LPS in Gey's medium (1 mg/ml) was treated ultrasonically (MSE/Mullard, 60 W, 20 kc/s) at 0°C for 1 min. Serial dilution (200 to 3.12 µg) in 0.15 ml (Gey's medium) were made and the same volume of NRS added to each. After incubation at 37°C in a water-bath for 30 min and decontamination at 56°C for 30 min, the mixtures were centrifuged (28 000 × g for 20 min at 4°C). The supernatants were pipetted off and 0.15 ml anti-LPS-CF serum, which was diluted 1 to 2 in isotonic saline, was added to each dilution (6). Immune precipitates were also prepared by mixing 0.15 ml anti-LPS-CF serum to the same volume of Gey's balanced salt solution (Gey's medium) containing varying amounts of LPS-CF (stock suspension of LPS CF in Gey's medium 1 mg/ml). The concentration of LPS-CF in each dilution step differed with 10 µg and dilutions ranging from 10 to 100 µg were made. Precipitates were allowed to form by placing all of the reaction mixtures in a water-bath at 37°C for 2 h and thereafter at 4°C for 48 h. The mixtures were centrifuged

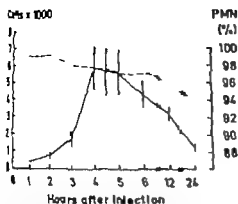


Fig 6 Kinetics of leukocyte accumulation in wound chambers implanted in rabbits after local injection of 25 μ g of LPS-CF in 0.4 ml saline. The chemotactic activity is expressed as number of cells per μ l of exudate. Each point represents the mean cell count \pm standard deviation (vertical bar) for triplicate chambers (solid line). The percentage of PMNs is denoted by the broken line.

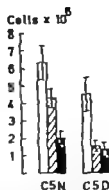


Fig 7 Induction of PMN migration into the intraperitoneal cavity of C5 normal (C5N) and C5 deficient (C5D) mice 5 h after local injection of 25 μ g of LPS-CF (open columns) and from 25 μ g of LPS (hatched columns). Solid columns are saline only. Each column represents the mean number of cells \pm standard deviation (vertical bar) from six mice. The higher chemotactic activity of LPS-CF in C5N mice is statistically significant at the 5 per cent level as the higher activity of LPS is at the one per cent level.

TABLE I Chemotactic Activity Induced by the Supernatant from Incubation of Anti-LPS-CF Serum with Varying Amounts of LPS-CF or LPS in Normal Rabbit Serum (NRS)

| Reaction mixture | Cells/field (n = 6) \pm s.d. |
|--|-----------------------------------|
| 1 LPS-CF (50 μ g) + anti-LPS-CF serum ^a | 0.8 \pm 1.3 |
| LPS-CF (60 μ g) + anti-LPS-CF serum ^b | 7.8 \pm 3.9 |
| LPS-CF (70 μ g) + anti-LPS-CF serum ^c | 100.1 \pm 50.6 |
| 2 LPS (12.5 μ g) + anti-LPS-CF serum ^a | 2.0 \pm 2.3 |
| LPS (25 μ g) + anti-LPS-CF serum ^b | 3.6 \pm 4.8 |
| LPS (50 μ g) + anti-LPS-CF serum ^c | 40.5 \pm 36.3 |
| 3 Controls | |
| LPS-CF (25 μ g) + 0.6 ml Gey's medium ^d | 213.3 \pm 25.2 |
| LPS (60 μ g) + 0.6 ml NRS + 0.6 ml Gey's medium | 207.5 \pm 35.7 |
| NRS alone | 26.7 \pm 4.2 |

The samples were prepared as follows:

- 1 LPS-CF in 0.15 ml Gey's medium + 0.15 ml anti-LPS-CF serum with addition of 0.9 ml Gey's medium to the supernatant.
- 2 LPS in Gey's medium + 0.15 ml NRS - 37°C 30 min - 56°C 30 min + 0.15 ml anti-LPS-CF serum with addition of 0.9 ml Gey's medium to the supernatant.
- 3 LPS (60 μ g) + 0.6 ml NRS - 37°C 30 min - 56°C 30 min + 0.6 ml Gey's medium.

^a Reaction mixture with antibody in excess

^b Reaction mixture with maximum precipitation.

^c Reaction mixture with antigen in excess

^d The LPS-CF was tested only in one experiment

Mean of two experiments

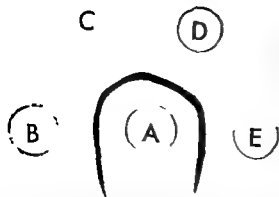


Fig 1 Immunodiffusion in agar gel. Well A contains antiserum against LPS-CF. Wells B, C and D contain chemotactically active materials eluted on G-200 columns with molecular weights of 7 000, 16 000 and 68 000 respectively. Well E contains LPS-CF. Stained with Amido Black 10B.

activity with MW of 68 000, 16 000 and 7 000 constantly found in the G-200 eluate, gave precipitation lines against anti-LPS-CF serum, fusing completely with LPS-CF. Furthermore, the chemotactic materials with MW of 68 000 and 7 000 eluted on the G-75 column, gave one precipitation line each fusing completely with that of the peak of MW 16 000 (Fig. 2). Moreover, precipitation analysis in agar showed complete fusion of the lines formed by LPS-CF, LPS-serum incubation mixture and LPS-induced inflammatory wound chamber exudate with antiserum to LPS-CF (Fig. 3). Also when testing NRS one faint line of precipitation fusing completely with that formed by the LPS-CF



Fig 2 Immunodiffusion slide in agar gel. Antigenic reaction between the chemotactic material eluted from G-75 columns with molecular weights of 7 000 (well B), 16 000 (well C) and 68 000 (well D). Antiserum (well A) was raised against the material of molecular weight 16 000 (LPS-CF).

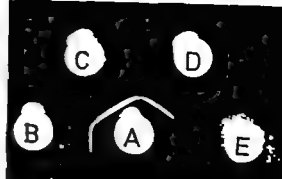


Fig 3 Double diffusion in agar gel. Antigenic reaction between antiserum raised in guinea pigs against LPS-CF (well A), LPS-NRS preincubated at 37°C for 30 min and at 56°C for 30 min (well B), LPS-CF (well C), wound chamber exudate 3 h after induction with LPS decomplemented at 56°C for 30 min (well D) and NRS activated for 37°C for 30 min and deactivated at 56°C for 30 min (well E). The faint line from well E, which is identical to the precipitation line demonstrated, cannot be seen on the photograph.

was seen. In immunoelectrophoresis, LPS-CF showed a low electrophoretic mobility showing one single precipitation arc near the application well when anti LPS-CF serum was used (Fig. 4).

High migration rates of PMNs into *in vivo* chambers of rabbits were induced when LPS-CF was applied into the chambers (Fig. 5). When the



Fig 4 Immunoelectrophoresis in agar gel of LPS-CF. Guinea pig antiserum to LPS-CF in the trough. The arrow crossing the application point indicates the precipitation arc.

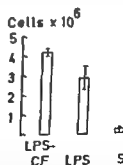


Fig 5 PMN accumulation in wound chambers in response to LPS-CF and LPS. Doses of 25 µg of each preparation were tested. Saline (S) was used as control. Each column represents the mean number of cells \pm standard deviation (vertical bar) from five chambers. The higher chemotactic activity induced by LPS-CF is at the one per cent level.

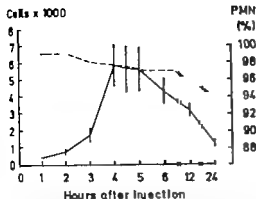


Fig 6 Kinetics of leucocyte accumulation in wound chambers implanted in rabbits after local injection of 25 µg of LPS-CF in 0.4 ml saline. The chemotactic activity is expressed as number of cells per µl of exudate. Each point represents the mean cell count \pm standard deviation (vertical bar) for triplicate chambers (solid curve). The percentage of PMNs is denoted by the broken curve.

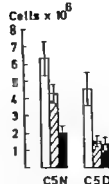


Fig 7 Induction of PMN migration into the intraperitoneal cavity of C5 normal (C5N) and C5 deficient (C5D) mice 5 h after local injection of 25 µg of LPS-CF (open columns) and from 25 µg of LPS (hatched columns). Solid columns are saline only. Each column represents the mean number of cells \pm standard deviation (vertical bar) from six mice. The higher chemotactic activity of LPS-CF in C5N mice is statistically significant at the 5 per cent level as the higher activity of LPS is at the one per cent level.

TABLE 1 Chemotactic Activity Induced by the Supernatant from Incubation of Anti-LPS-CF Serum with Varying Amounts of LPS-CF or LPS in Normal Rabbit Serum (NRS)

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|---|--|
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| 2 LPS (12.5 µg) + anti-LPS-CF serum ^a | 2.0 \pm 2.3 |
| LPS (25 µg) + anti-LPS-CF serum ^b | 3.6 \pm 4.8 |
| LPS (50 µg) + anti-LPS-CF serum ^b | 40.5 \pm 36.3 |
| 3 Controls | |
| LPS-CF (25 µg) + 0.6 ml Gey's medium ^a | 213.3 \pm 25.2 |
| LPS (60 µg) + 0.6 ml NRS + 0.6 ml Gey's medium | 207.5 \pm 35.7 |
| NRS alone | 26.7 \pm 4.2 |

Test samples were prepared as follows:

- 1 LPS-CF in 0.15 ml Gey's medium + 0.15 ml anti-LPS-CF serum with addition of 0.9 ml Gey's medium to the supernatant.
- 2 LPS in Gey's medium + 0.15 ml NRS - 37°C 30 min - 56°C 30 min + 0.15 ml anti-LPS-CF serum with addition of 0.9 ml Gey's medium to the supernatant.
- 3 LPS (60 µg) + 0.6 ml NRS - 37°C 30 min - 56°C 30 min + 0.6 ml Gey's medium.

^a Reaction mixture with antibody in excess.

^b Reaction mixture with maximum precipitation.

^c Reaction mixture with antigen in excess.

^d The LPS-CF was tested only in one experiment.

Mean of two experiments.

chemotactic activity of equivalent amounts of LPS-CF and LPS were compared, a significantly higher migration activity of PMNs into the wound chamber fluid was found where LPS-CF had been injected 5 h before ($p < 0.01$)

Figure 6 depicts the activity of LPS-CF for rabbit PMNs plotted as a function of time. The influx of PMNs into the wound chambers was found to increase more than three times between the third and the fourth hour after the injection of LPS-CF. Thereafter only a slow decrease of the PMN migration took place. More than 97 per cent of the cells present in the exudate at the peak of migration activity 4 h after injection of LPS-CF were made up of PMNs.

The application of LPS-CF intraperitoneally in C5D mice stimulated the PMNs to active migration (Fig. 7). Although the accumulation of cells in C5N mice was markedly higher than in C5D mice ($p < 0.05$) the higher mobilization rate induced by LPS-CF than by equivalent amounts of endotoxin on PMNs in C5D mice, was highly significant ($p < 0.01$). The higher number of cells accumulated in C5N mice than in C5D mice after LPS stimulation, was statistically significant at the one per cent level.

Table 1 summarizes the results of the inhibition studies of the anti LPS-CF serum on the chemotactic capacity induced by the purified LPS-CF and that of LPS when incubated in normal rabbit serum. The zone of maximum precipitation was found to correspond to 60 µg of LPS-CF and to 25 µg of LPS in the respective reaction mixtures. Significant chemotactic activity was found in the antigen excess zone whereas no chemotaxis was induced in the equivalence zone or in the antibody excess zone.

The inhibitory effect on the chemotactic response of PMNs when preincubated with varying concentrations of LPS-CF and thereafter challenged in the modified Boyden chamber is shown in Table 2. The degree of inhibition was found to be related to the amount of LPS-CF used in the preincubation.

TABLE 2 *Suppression of Chemotactic Response by Preincubation of PMNs with Varying Amounts of LPS-CF and Challenged with 50 µg/ml of LPS-CF*

| Preincubation of PMNs with | Inhibition of chemotaxis (%) |
|----------------------------|------------------------------|
| LPS-CF 50 µg/ml | 82.7 ± 4.3 |
| LPS-CF 25 µg/ml | 56.6 ± 11.1 |
| LPS-CF 12.5 µg/ml | 26.6 ± 9.4 |

Results are mean and standard deviation of one experiment performed in triplicate.

DISCUSSION

As reported in a previous paper (16), chromatography of LPS-induced inflammatory exudate on Sephadex G 200 columns constantly showed three peaks with chemotactic activity. The molecular weights were estimated to 68 000, 16 000 and 7 000.

C5 has been found to be the precursor of both the chemotactic and the anaphylatoxic activity (5, 8), and it has been proposed that this anaphylatorin peptide may be identical to classical anaphylatorin (4, 19). According to Wessler (22) and Wessler *et al.* (23) the classical anaphylatoxin (probably C5a) was not chemotactic on its own, but when combined with another peptide (coactotoxin) which was neither anaphylatoxic nor chemotactic on its own, the chemotactic activity was restored. The molecular weights of these peptides were reported to be about 8,500–9,500. Thus, the fraction of MW 7 000 may contain both of these peptides in a dissociated state, the component of MW 16 000 being identical to C5a and the fraction of MW 68 000 a polymer of the component of MW 16 000. Also the finding that the chemotactic material present in the three peaks was antigenically identical to that of LPS-CF (cf. Fig. 1) strengthens the suggestion that the material of MW 68 000 is a polymer of the fraction of MW 16 000. Furthermore, this suggestion is supported by the finding that the filtration on Sephadex G-75 column of the major peak (MW 16 000) from the G-200 column gave three peaks which were antigenically identical to LPS-CF (cf. Fig. 2). In addition, support was found for the supposition that the fraction of MW 68 000 is a polymer of the peak of MW 16 000 since this high molecular peak was not found in the eluate of G-75 columns when the peak of MW 16 000 from the G 200 column was filtered in the presence of 8 M urea (16). The present results clearly demonstrate that the three components mentioned are antigenically identical thus indicating a reaggregation of peptides of the peak of MW 7 000 as suggested in (16). Another possibility could be that guinea pigs have not responded to one of the peptides. However both peptides have been found to be necessary for the chemotactic activity (23) and consequently it is difficult to determine if the antiserum is directed against one or both peptides, although the antiserum inhibited chemotaxis.

The fusion of the precipitation lines produced with anti LPS-CF serum, LPS-serum incubation mixture and LPS-induced wound chamber exudate with the precipitation line produced by isolated LPS-CF (cf. Fig. 3) shows the heat-stable leukotactic factor present in these test media to be antigenically identical to LPS-CF. Furthermore, this finding

confirms the supposed identity between the humoral leukotactic mediator generated by endotoxin *in vivo* and that induced *in vitro* upon incubation of LPS with normal serum. The identity of these leukotactic mediators was further substantiated since anti-LPS-CF serum also inhibited the chemotactic activity from incubations of LPS with normal rabbit serum when antibody either was in the equilibrium or in the excess zone on the precipitation curve (cf. Table 1). However chemotactic activity was found in the supernatants of the precipitates where antigen was added beyond that needed at equivalence. It has been found that soluble immune complexes chemotactically active for PMNs are formed in the antigen excess zone (9). Such complexes might carry potent biological activity and may thus be quite relevant to the development of acute inflammatory processes. These immune complexes also have a long persistence in the blood due to the slow elimination by fixed macrophages (7). Whether the chemotactic activity present in the supernatant is due to unbound chemotactic mediator(s) or to soluble antigen-antibody complexes, is not known.

In a previous report (15) the generation of the PMN chemotactic factor by LPS *in vivo* or upon incubation with normal serum, was found not to be dependent on C4 but dependent on C5. This implies that an intact alternative complement pathway is required for the activation by LPS. Upon intraperitoneal injection in C57 mice, LPS-CF caused a PMN migration only slightly lower than in C5N mice ($p < 0.05$) (cf. Fig. 7). Moreover the comparatively higher chemotaxis induced by 25 μ g of LPS-CF than by equivalent amounts of LPS when injected into *in vivo* chambers ($p < 0.01$) also demonstrates its potency (cf. Fig. 5). Thus, these findings, in conjunction with other (10, 11) and our (15, 16) reports, give considerable support to the concept that C5 is the parent substrate from which the PMN chemotactic factor is split off upon interaction with LPS.

The time elapsed from injection of LPS-CF to a peak of cell concentration in the wound chamber exudate was 4 h (cf. Fig. 6). This time lag is 1 h shorter than when LPS was examined (17), and may indicate how much time is needed for the key substrate to arrive into the chamber and the generation of the cytotoxin necessary for establishing a leukotactic concentration gradient. Furthermore, when LPS-CF was applied into *in vivo* chambers, a significantly greater increase in cell accumulation was achieved in the exudate compared to when the same amount of LPS was injected. This finding indicates that a larger bulk of PMNs in the vicinity of the chamber lumen is being stimulated

for migration when LPS-CF is introduced into the chamber than when LPS is injected. These PMNs may primarily be mobilized from the vessels of the granulation tissue within and around the chamber (17) together with cells residing in the granulation tissue. It seems that a gradient of the generated cytotoxin is elaborated at a slower rate of speed when LPS is injected, and this delay may be due to a rather slow influx into the chambers of the substrate necessary for the generation of the leukotactic mediator.

The finding of an increase in accumulation of PMNs in the early phase of the inflammatory response to the injection of LPS-CF (cf. Fig. 6) corroborates previous results when LPS was tested (17). The bell-shaped curve of time versus cellular response thus seems to be typical for the migration of PMNs into an inflammatory focus, and this experiment gives valuable information about the rate at which the PMNs are mobilized at different time intervals after the induction of an inflammatory state. At the peak of cell concentration at 4 h, only about 3 per cent of the cells were VNs. The sequential migration of the two cell types cannot be attributed entirely to their responding to different chemotactic stimuli. An increasing amount of disintegrated cells were observed in the inflammatory exudate 5 to 6 h after stimulation with LPS (17), and this corresponds well with the half-time of 6 to 7 h of the PMN survival in the circulation. As depicted in Fig. 6 there is a significant decrease in number of PMNs in the inflammatory exudate 6 h after stimulation with LPS-CF. If the lower PMN migration is due to chemotactic factor inactivators in the exudate or due to absorbance of the chemotactic factor to cells trapped in the exudate, is not known. Neither is it known whether the delayed migration of PMNs into LPS-CF induced inflammatory exudate is due to their slow motion, or whether they are being attracted by degradation products from the degenerating PMNs or from a complement-derived chemotactic mediator.

The preincubation of rabbit peritoneal PMNs with various amounts of LPS-CF was found to suppress the PMNs from migration towards the chemotactic gradient of the LPS-CF in the Boyden chamber (cf. Table 2). Ward & Becker (21) called this phenomenon desensitization. This is consistent with the concept that the receptor sites on the surface of the PMNs are saturated by preincubation with LPS-CF and that recognition of the chemotactic gradient in the Boyden chamber thereby is prevented. Cross-desensitization between the cytotoxic C5a and kaithiren (3) and between different complement derived chemotactic factors (20) have been reported.

In a previous report it was established that LPS when injected i.p. into C5D mice or into chambers implanted subcutaneously in C5D mice, do not bring about a migration of PMNs in the early phase of a normal inflammatory reaction (15). This study however shows that the PMN chemotactic factor isolated from LPS-induced inflammatory exudate of tissue chambers in rabbits activate the PMNs in C5D mice to migrate towards a gradient of chemotactic molecules in the peritoneal cavity. In addition, the only slightly lower activity exerted by LPS-CF in C5D mice compared to that in C5N mice (cf. Fig. 7), shows that the PMNs of the C5D mice respond normally to leukotactic mediators and that the fifth complement factor is crucial in a normal inflammatory response.

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BRIEF REPORT

VIBRIO PARAHAEMOLYTICUS ISOLATED FROM DISCHARGE FROM THE EAR IN TWO PATIENTS EXPOSED TO SEA WATER

Hedge Olsen

Statens Seruminstitut, Regional Laboratory Odense University Hospital, DK 5000 Odense, Denmark

Olsen, H. *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* isolated from discharge from the ear in two patients exposed to sea water. Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B, 86: 247-248 1978.

Vibrio parahaemolyticus and *Vibrio alginolyticus* were isolated from discharge from the ear in two patients exposed to sea water. Both had perforation of the tympanic membrane. They recovered quickly. The bacteriological characteristics of the two strains are described.

Key words: *Vibrio parahaemolyticus*, *Vibrio alginolyticus*, isolation, discharge from the ear.

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Accepted as submitted 30 in 78

The halophilic marine vibrio, *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* biotype 1 is well established as a cause of human gastroenteritis in Japan (4, 10), but cases have also been reported in the United States (3). The organism has been found in sea water in the continental United States, Japan, Hawaii and the Far East (1, 7, 8, 9), but also in the North Sea and Baltic Sea (5).

Vibrio alginolyticus, *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* biotype 2, is another sea water vibrio closely related to the above-mentioned. It has been isolated from septic lesions of the skin in patients exposed to marine environment (6).

Case reports

Case 1 A 7-year-old boy had serious, relapsing otitis media treated with drainage of the middle ear. He was bathing in the sea when perforation of the tympanic membrane was still present. There was discharge from the ear and a swab yielded numerous colonies of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* in pure culture. The lesion healed spontaneously.

Case 2 While playing during sea bathing a 19-year-old man got a rupture of the tympanic membrane. Discharge from the ear followed, and a swab gave profuse growth of *Vibrio alginolyticus* in pure culture. The lesion responded to conventional treatment, including total application of terramycin.

Results

Growth after overnight incubation appeared on blood agar plates, Coaradi Dragablu plates, and agar plates containing 7.5% NaCl.

Growth of the strain from case 1 was scanty on the salt plate. No haemolytic activity was demonstrated either on horse blood agar plates or on human blood agar plates. The strain from case 2 swarmed on agar plates and on horse and human blood agar plates, while the strain from case 1 swarmed only on human blood agar plates and only slightly. In semisolid agar growth occurred at 22°, 30° and 35° C. Reduced growth was found at 10° C and 42° C and there was no growth at 4° C. Stained films showed a pleomorphic gram-negative organism. The cells were highly motile by a single polar flagellum.

The following biochemical tests were positive: oxidase, catalase, gelatinase, indole production, nitrate to nitrite and tyrosine decarboxylase. The following were negative: urease, phenylalanine deaminase, arginine dihydrolase, ONPG, malonate utilization and hydrogen sulphide production.

Acid was produced within two days from glucose, lactulose, galactose, maltose, trehalose, mannitol, glycerol and starch. No acid was formed in 30 days from xylose, rhamnose, lactose, raffinose, adonitol, dulcitol, sorbitol, inositol, erythritol, sorbose and salicin. No gas was produced from glucose, mannitol and inositol.

BRIEF REPORT

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Key words: *Vibrio parahaemolyticus*, *Vibrio alginolyticus*, isolation, discharge from the ear

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Accepted as submitted 30.10.78

The halophilic marine vibrio *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* biotype 1 is well established as a cause of human gastroenteritis in Japan (4, 10), but cases have also been reported in the United States (3). The organism has been found in sea water in the continental United States, Japan, Hawaii and the Far East (1, 7, 8, 9), but also in the North Sea and Baltic Sea (5).

Vibrio alginolyticus, *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* biotype 2, is another sea water vibrio closely related to the above-mentioned. It has been isolated from septic lesions of the skin in patients exposed to marine environment (6).

Case reports

Case 1. A 7-year-old boy had serous, relapsing otitis media treated with drainage of the middle ear. He was bathing in the sea when perforation of the tympanic membrane was still present. There was discharge from the ear and a swab yielded numerous colonies of *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* in pure culture. The lesion healed spontaneously.

Case 2. While playing during sea bathing a 19-year-old male got rupture of the tympanic membrane. Discharge from the ear followed, and a swab gave profuse growth of *Vibrio alginolyticus* in pure culture. The lesion responded to conventional treatment, including local application of tetracycline.

Results

Growth after overnight incubation appeared on blood agar plates, Costrach-Dragalski plates, and agar plates containing 7.5% NaCl.

Growth of the strain from case 1 was scanty on the salt plate. No haemolytic activity was demonstrated either on horse blood agar plates or on human blood agar plates. The strain from case 2 swarmed on agar plates and on horse and human blood agar plates, while the strain from case 1 swarmed only on human blood agar plates and only slightly in semisolid agar growth occurred at ~ 30° and 35° C. Reduced growth was found at 10° C and 42° C and there was no growth at 4° C. Stained films showed a pleomorphic gram-negative organism. The cells were highly motile by a single polar flagellum.

The following biochemical tests were positive: oxidase, catalase, gelatinase, indole production, nitrate to nitrite and lysine decarboxylase. The following were negative: aesculin, phenylalanine deaminase, arginine dihydrolase, ONPG, malonate utilization and hydrogen sulphide production.

Acid was produced within two days from glucose, lactulose, galactose, melonose, trehalose, mannitol, glycerol and starch. No acid was formed in 30 days from xylose, rhamnose, lactose, raffinose, adonitol, dulcitol, sorbitol, inositol, erythritol, sorbose and melitin. No gas was produced from glucose, mannitol and inositol.

TABLE 1 Tests Showing Differences between the Strains Isolated from the Two Cases

| | Strain from | |
|-------------------------|-------------|--------|
| | Case 1 | Case 2 |
| Voges Proskauer | - | + |
| Acid from sucrose | - | + |
| Acid from arabinose | + | - |
| Ornithine decarboxylase | + | - |
| Methyl red | + | - |
| Nitrate utilization | + | - |

There was sensitivity to sulphonamides, streptomycin, gentamicin, tobramycin, chloramphenicol, tetracycline, cotrimoxazole, nitrofurantoin and novobiocin and resistance to penicillin, ampicillin, carbenicillin and fusidic acid.

The tests showing differences between the two strains are shown in Table 1.

Discussion

The strain isolated from case 1 has the same characteristics as the Japanese strains isolated from patients with gastroenteritis, except that β -galactosidase, consistently produced by the Japanese was not demonstrated in the Danish (10). The strain from case 2 was identified as *V. alginolyticus* (2, 6, 10).

Hemolytic activity on human blood has previously been associated with pathogenicity for man. However among strains isolated from patients with gastroenteritis, only 63% hemolyzed human erythrocytes and none equine erythrocytes (10). Sheep erythrocytes have been found to be hemolyzed frequently (7). The two strains presented here showed no hemolytic activity.

The disease was mild in both patients and they recovered quickly. A common feature was perforation of the typhanic membrane at the time of exposure to sea water.

V. parahaemolyticus has been isolated from coastal areas in several places, including Scandinavian waters. However gastroenteritis caused by the microorganism is known only in Japan and the United States. In Japan the consumption of sea foods is extensive and the food is often eaten raw (8), which might explain the occurrence there. The temperature has an influence on the content of *V. parahaemolyticus* in sea water, since the bacteria have been isolated more frequently in the summer than in the winter (1, 5). This might contribute to explaining the absence of gastroenteritis in temperate geographical areas.

The bacteriological diagnosis was kindly confirmed by the Institute of Veterinary Microbiology and Hygiene, Royal Veterinary and Agricultural University Copenhagen, and the Department of Diagnostic Bacteriology, Statens Serum Institut, Copenhagen.

The writer is also grateful to colleagues who provided clinical information.

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BRIEF REPORT

THE PRESENCE IN FAECAL EXTRACTS OF BACTERIAL CELL WALL COMPONENTS RESEMBLING VIRAL STRUCTURES

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Dale, A. The presence in faecal extracts of bacterial cell wall components resembling viral structures. *Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B*, 86: 249-251, 1978

Electron microscopy of faecal extracts frequently shows organized structures which have a superficial resemblance to viral material in that it is more heterogeneous and consists mainly of vesicles and tubules covered by subunits arranged in different patterns. Evidence is presented that this kind of material is derived from detached outer layers of bacterial cell walls.

Key words: Faeces, bacterial cell wall structures, viral structures

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The examination of faecal extracts by electron microscopy has become an established method in diagnostic virology. A simple preparative procedure can be used such as the one employed in our laboratory. Faeces is suspended in five volumes of saline and debris removed by centrifugation (5000 g for 30 min). One ml of the supernatant is mixed with 5 ml of phosphate buffered saline and centrifuged at 45,000 g for 1 h. The pellet is resuspended in a few drops of distilled water and one drop of suspension is transferred to a carbon-formvar-coated grid (400 mesh). The fluid is removed after 60 s with a piece of filter paper and the grids are stained with 2% (w/v) sodium phosphotungstate (PTA), pH 6.6 for 30 s. The specimens are then observed by electron microscopy (Hitachi, HU-12A).

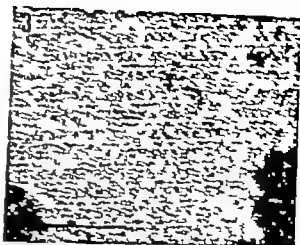
Organized structures superficially resembling viruses or viral components are often observed in such preparations (Fig. 1). These structures are probably of bacterial origin. External layers with regularly arranged subunits have been demonstrated in many genera of both gram-negative and gram-positive bacteria (3). The subunits are proteins which are arranged tetragonally in gram-positive bacteria and hexagonally or tetragonally in gram-negative bacteria (4). In many instances, detached subunits have been shown to resemble into regular

arrays with the same dimensions as in the intact bacteria (6).

Bacteria with clearly exposed structures of the superficial layers of the cell wall are sometimes found in faecal preparations (Fig. 2). The outer envelope of the bacterium in this figure is partly detached and a regular array of subunits is revealed. The surface resembles that demonstrated in freeze etched preparations of gram-negative bacteria with hexagonally arranged external subunits (1). The irregularly spaced rings on the surface have an average internal diameter of 22 nm and an outer diameter of 29 nm. Smaller rings but of smaller size have been observed on endotoxin blots prepared from *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* (5).

Heat extracted subunits from the external layers of *Spirillum serpens* tend to be organized in vesicles or tubules and are probably situated on a backing layer of lipopolysaccharide (2). The subunits resemble those on debris from faecal extracts seen in Fig. 1. Such structures sometimes have the size and appearance of full or empty viral capsids.

Further purification of the heat extracted material from *Spirillum serpens*, involving removal of lipopolysaccharide, gives structures of hexagonal subunits held together by Y-shaped links (1). Shown built up of similar cross-shaped subunits are sometimes found in the



The figures 1-5 are electron micrographs of faecal extracts negatively stained with 2 per cent PTA, pH 6.6. The marker on each micrograph indicates 100 nm.

Fig 1 Organized structures probably derived from bacterial cell walls and consisting of hexagonal subunits situated on a backing layer. X 135 000.

Fig 2 Part of a rod-shaped bacterium which shows a partly ruptured outer border. Note the regular arrays of hexagonal subunits and the irregularly spaced rings of varying sizes on the surface. X 185 000.

Fig 3 A sheet of hexagonal subunits held together by Y-shaped links. X 240 000.

Fig 4 A commonly occurring hexagonal meshwork. X 240 000.

Fig 5 A hexagonal meshwork in close proximity to a layer consisting of hexagonal subunits. X 240 000.

faecal extracts (Fig. 3). The units of which this structure is made up have a diameter of 9 nm with a centre to centre spacing of 15 to 16 nm. This type of structure is found occasionally while sheets of varying size consisting of a hexagonal meshwork are more commonly observed (Fig. 4). The length of the sides of each hexagon is 7 nm. This hexagonal meshwork is probably the basic arrangement on which the hexagonal subunits are added, since transitional forms between the two kinds of pattern were observed occasionally (Fig. 5).

The degradation products previously obtained from bacteria by physico-chemical means are thus similar to those found in the faecal extracts of the present material. The number of these structures was found to vary considerably. In some cases the treatment of the patient with antibiotics might have contributed to the presence of bacterial debris in the faecal extracts. From a practical point of view the presence of large numbers of such bacterial structures can interfere with the identification of particularly rotaviruses when only a few viruses are present.

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BRIEF REPORT

THE FIRST TICK BORNE ENCEPHALITIS VIRUS ISOLATES FROM NORWAY

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Travnik, T., Mehl, R. & Wiger, R. The first tick-borne encephalitis virus isolates from Norway. Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B 86: 253-255, 1978.

Five virus strains with close serological relationship to the tick-borne encephalitis (TBE) complex have been isolated from *Ixodes ricinus* ticks. The ticks were collected in early June 1976 at three different locations in Sogn & Fjordane County, Norway. One of the virus-yielding pools was composed of ticks collected here on the cabins on a tourist camping ground.

Key words: TBE virus, *Ixodes ricinus*, virus isolations.

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Norwegian arbovirus research was started in 1973/74. We concentrated on tick-borne viruses during the initial phase, notably because the ecological information (5-8) available on ticks was much more comprehensive than for other potential arbovirus vectors. In addition, an outbreak of meningoencephalitis epidemiologically related to the tick *Ixodes ricinus* had occurred (1), and antibodies to tick-borne encephalitis (TBE) virus had been detected in bovine sera (10).

From approximately 6000 *I. ricinus* and *I. xerxes* ticks collected in 1973-75, Uukueemia (UUK) group viruses and *A. rossicus* virus were isolated (11, 12), but no TBE-related viruses were found. This paper reports the isolation and identification of TBE-group viruses from ticks collected in 1976.

Materials and Methods Isolation Procedures

These have been described in detail elsewhere (11, 12). Ticks collected by the blanket drag method were divided into pools according to stage and sex, triturated and inoculated intracerebrally (ic) on 1-3 day-old mice. Suspensions of brains from sick or moribund mice were inoculated on new litters after having passed 220 nm filters (Nalupore). Brain suspensions from the second baby mouse passage were seeded on BHK 21/c13 cell

cultures in flower bottles, which were inspected daily for cytopathic effect (CPE). Virus isolates from mouse brains and cell cultures were identified and compared by serological techniques.

Identification Procedures

A TBE virus strain (Hypv) was delivered as a 10% hypotized baby mouse brain suspension from the 63rd passage. It underwent two additional passages in our laboratory and was used for reference antigen production. Reference antisera/ascitic fluids were prepared in adult mice (12) after beta-propiolactone inactivation of the first immunizing inoculum (9). Antiserum was also produced in rabbits by injection of supernatants from infected HeLa cell cultures (13). These antisera were absorbed with packed HeLa cells prior to use in serological tests.

Mouse antisera and ascitic fluids to TBE, UUK (5, 23), Tiber, WEE and EEE were delivered by the Yale Arbovirus Research Unit. Mouse antisera/ascitic fluids to the Norwegian UUK strains, Tiber and Tahyna were produced as reported previously (12).

The TBE reference virus or other arbovirus strains were not handled in our laboratories during the weeks prior to the successful isolations reported in this paper.

Antigens for serological identification were produced by sucrose-acetone (SA) extraction of second passage baby mouse brains (3).

BRIEF REPORT

THE FIRST TICK BORNE ENCEPHALITIS VIRUS ISOLATES FROM NORWAY

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From approximately 6000 *I. ricinus* and *I. urticae* ticks collected in 1973-75, Uukonsen (UUK) group viruses and «Randø» virus were isolated (11, 12), but no TBE-related viruses were found. This paper reports the isolation and identification of TBE-group viruses from ticks collected in 1976.

Materials and Methods Isolation Procedures

These have been described in detail elsewhere (11, 12). Ticks collected by the blanket drag method were divided into pools according to stage and sex, triturated and inoculated intracerebrally (ic) on 1-3 day-old mice. Suspensions of brains from sick or moribund mice were inoculated on new litters after having passed 220 nm filters (Milipore). Brain suspensions from the second baby mouse passage were seeded on BHK 21/c13 cell

cultures in Roux bottles, which were inspected daily for cytopathic effect (CPE). Virus isolates from mouse brains and cell cultures were identified and compared by serological techniques.

Identification Procedures

A TBE virus strain (Hypv) was delivered as a 10% hypotized baby mouse brain suspension from the 63rd passage. It underwent two additional passages in our laboratory and was used for reference antigen production. Reference antisera/serum fluids were prepared in adult mice (12) after beta-propiolactone inactivation of the first immunizing inoculum (9). Antiserum was also produced in rabbits by injection of supernatants from infected HeLa cell cultures (13). These antisera were absorbed with packed HeLa cells prior to use in serological tests.

Mouse antisera and serum fluids to TBE, UUK (S 23), Tritic, WEE and EEE were delivered by the Yale Arbovirus Research Unit. Mouse antisera/immune serum fluids to the Norwegian UUK strains, Tritic and Tabyn were produced as reported previously (12).

The TBE reference virus or other arbovirus strains were not handled in our laboratories during the weeks prior to the successful isolations reported in this paper.

Antisera for serological identification were produced by sucrose-acetone (SA) extraction of second passage baby mouse brains (3).

BRIEF REPORT

THE FIRST TICK BORNE ENCEPHALITIS VIRUS ISOLATES FROM NORWAY

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From approximately 6000 *I. ricinus* and *I. sensu* ticks collected in 1973-75, Unknowns (UUK) group viruses and «Russian» virus were isolated (11, 12), but no TBE-related viruses were found. This paper reports the isolation and identification of TBE-group viruses from ticks collected in 1976.

Materials and Methods

Isolation Procedures

These have been described in detail elsewhere (11, 12). Ticks collected by the blanket drag method were divided into pools according to stage and sex, triturated and inoculated intracerebrally (ic) on 1-3 day-old mice. Suspensions of brains from sick or moribund mice were inoculated on new litters after having passed 220 nm filters (Millipore). Brain suspensions from the second baby mouse passage were seeded on BHK 21/c13 cell

cultures in Roux bottles, which were inspected daily for cytopathic effect (CPE). Virus isolates from mouse brains and cell cultures were identified and compared by serological techniques.

Identification Procedures

A TBE virus strain (Hyper) was delivered as a 10% hypotized baby mouse brain suspension from the 63rd passage. It underwent two additional passages in our laboratory and was used for reference antigen production. Reference antisera/serotic fluids were prepared in adult mice (12) after beta-propiolactone inactivation of the first immunizing inoculum (9). Antiserum was also produced in rabbits by injection of supernatants from infected HeLa cell cultures (13). These antisera were absorbed with packed HeLa cells prior to use in serological tests.

Mouse antisera and serotic fluids to TBE, UUK (S 23), Tritic, WEE and EEE were delivered by the Yale Arbovirus Research Unit. Mouse antisera/humane serotic fluids to the Norwegian UUK strains, Tritic and Talyra were produced as reported previously (12).

The TBE reference virus or other arbovirus strains were not handled in our laboratories during the weeks prior to the successful isolations reported in this paper.

Antisera for serological identification were produced by sucrose-acetone (SA) extraction of second passage baby mouse brains (3).

BRIEF REPORT

THE FIRST TICK BORNE ENCEPHALITIS VIRUS ISOLATES FROM NORWAY

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Five virus strains with close serological relationship to the tick-borne encephalitis (TBE) complex have been isolated from *Ixodes ricinus* ticks. The ticks were collected in early June 1976 at three different locations in Soga & Fjordane County, Norway. One of the virus-yielding pools was composed of ticks collected between the cabins on a tourist camping ground.

Key words: TBE virus, *Ixodes ricinus*, virus isolations.

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Norwegian arbovirus research was started in 1972/74. We concentrated on tick-borne viruses during the initial phase, mainly because the ecological information (5-8) available on ticks was much more comprehensive than for other potential arbovirus vectors. In addition, an outbreak of meningoencephalitis epidemiologically related to the tick *Ixodes ricinus* had occurred (1), and antibodies to tick-borne encephalitis (TBE) virus had been detected in bovine sera (10).

From approximately 6000 *I. ricinus* and *I. arvensis* ticks collected in 1973-75, Unikonsent (UUK) group viruses and «Rondeau» virus were isolated (11, 12), but no TBE-related virus was found. This paper reports the isolation and identification of TBE-group viruses from ticks collected in 1976.

Materials and Methods Isolation Procedures

These have been described in detail elsewhere (11, 12). Ticks collected by the blanket drag method were divided into pools according to stage and sex, triturated and inoculated intracerebrally (ic) on 1-3 day-old mice. Suspensions of brains from sick or moribund mice were inoculated on new litters after having passed 220 nm filters (Millipore). Brain suspensions from the second baby mouse passage were seeded on BHK 21/c13 cell

cultures in Roux bottles, which were inspected daily for cytopathic effect (CPE). Virus isolates from mouse brains and cell cultures were identified and compared by serological techniques.

Identification Procedures

A TBE virus strain (Hypr) was delivered as a 10% lymphatized baby mouse brain suspension from the 63rd passage. It underwent two additional passages in our laboratory and was used for reference antigen production. Reference antiserum/serum fluids were prepared in adult mice (12) after beta-prophylaxis/inactivation of the first immunizing inoculum (9). Antiserum was also produced in rabbits by injection of supernatants from infected HeLa cell cultures (13). These antisera were absorbed with packed HeLa cells prior to use in serological tests.

Mouse antisera and serum fluids to TBE, UUK (S 23), Tiber, WEE and EEE were delivered by the Yale Arbovirus Research Unit. Mouse antisera/immune serum fluids to the Norwegian UUK strains, Tiber and Tahyna, were produced as reported previously (12).

The TBE reference virus or other arbovirus strains were not handled in our laboratories during the weeks prior to the successful isolations reported in this paper.

Antigens for serological identification were produced by sucrose-acetone (SA) extraction of second passage baby mouse brains (3).

Isolates

The virus strains related to the TBE complex were isolated from 111 tick pools comprising 358 individuals. These ticks were collected in Sogn & Fjordane County from June 8 to 11 1976. Some data concerning the isolates are shown in Table 1. The original isolations were made in October–November 1976. Reisolation was attempted twice, in December 1976 and in April 1978, but times with success.

As shown in Table 2, the serological relationship of these isolates to TBE was clear-cut by all the methods employed. The HA titres with trypanized human and duck erythrocytes were identical (640–1280) for all strains and also for TBE strain H₁pr. In contrast to chick cells, the human cells showed the same activity at 4° and 37°C.

Discussion

The high antibody prevalence in host mammals (10) and the areas studied caused us to expect TBE virus isolates from the thousands of *I. ricinus* collected in 1973–75. This was not the case, but UUK was isolated, (iii) though with much lower antibody rates. Partial explanations for this may be:

(1) During these years tick collections were made during the late summer and autumn. It has been noticed that TBE activity may be highest in the early summer and UUK activity highest in the autumn (2, cited as 6).

UUK seems to be more temperature-resistant than TBE. Our handling of ticks collected in 1973–75 may have seriously affected the chances of TBE isolation (6). The ticks were kept in refrigerator for up to 14 days and transported to the laboratory at air temperature. The effect of such sudden temperature changes is not known to us.

In 1976 tick collections were made early in the season, and the ticks were either frozen immediately on dry ice or kept and transported at air temperature.

Isolate E 674 from Dragsvik in Sogn illustrates a potential public health hazard, since the ticks were collected on a camping ground, mostly from the vegetation between the cabins. Three out of five virus strains were from *male* ticks, thus demonstrating the ability of TBE viruses to pass interstadially in a vector.

The field expedition was supported by a grant from the *Nordens Fjord*. Expert technical assistance was given by *Einar Brunvold* and *Halfrim Sæverid*.

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Cell culture supernatants from BHK 21/c13 cultures were concentrated 300 times by polyethylene glycol 6000/NaCl (PEG/NaCl) precipitation, tested for infectivity in newborn mice, and also used as antigens in the serological identifications (13).

The haemagglutinating (HA) activities were tested and haemagglutination inhibition (HAI) tests were performed

with trypsinized human O (7) and newborn chick erythrocytes at pH 6.0-6.2 and 4° and 37°C (3).

In addition to HAI serological identification and comparisons were performed by a standard complement fixation test (CFT) (4), gel precipitation in 1% agarose gel (closed hexagon immunodiffusion) (11) and immunoelectrophoresis (13).

TABLE 1 *Ixodes ricinus* Pools Yielding TBE Virus Isolates, Collected June 8-11 1976

| Pool no | Collection site | Composition | Incubation time(s) | | | | | Reisolation |
|---------|--------------------|-------------|--------------------|----|----|----|------------|-------------|
| | | | P (nb) | M1 | M2 | M3 | | |
| E 672 | Lavik in Sogn | 9 ♀ ♀ | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | a + b + c) | |
| E 674 | Dragsvik in Sogn | 12 ♂ ♂ | 4 | 3 | 3 | 3 | a + b + | |
| E 678 | Bygstad, Nordfjord | 6 ♂ ♂ | 5 | 3 | 3 | 3 | a ND, b + | |
| E 681 | Dragsvik | 12 ♂ ♂ | 3 | 4 | 3 | 3 | a ND b + | |
| E 682 | Dragsvik | 4 ♀ ♀ | 5 | 3 | 3 | 3 | a ND b + | |

) Number of days from intracerebral inoculation until manifest signs of encephalitis in baby mice.

b) Primary inoculation and mouse brain passage 1 2 and 3

c) a: December 1976 b: April 1978

d) Not done.

TABLE 2 *Serological Relationships of Norwegian Tick Isolates to TBE Virus, Strain Hypr*

| Antigen | HAI | | CFT | | CHI | | IEOP | |
|--------------|------|-----|-----|-----|-----------------------|---|------|---|
| | M | R | M | R | M | R | M | R |
| TBE Hypr SA | 1280 | 320 | 512 | 128 | Reactions of identity | | 8 | 4 |
| TBE Hypr BHK | ND | ND | ND | ND | " | | 4 | 4 |
| E 672 SA | 640 | 320 | 512 | 128 | " | | 4 | 2 |
| E 672 BHK | ND | ND | ND | ND | " | | 4 | 2 |
| E 674 SA | 1280 | 320 | 256 | 128 | " | | 8 | 4 |
| E 674 BHK | ND | ND | ND | ND | " | | 4 | 4 |
| E 678 SA | 640 | 320 | 256 | 128 | " | | 4 | 4 |
| E 678 BHK | ND | ND | ND | ND | " | | 4 | 4 |
| E 681 SA | 640 | 320 | 256 | 64 | " | | 4 | 2 |
| E 681 BHK | ND | ND | ND | ND | " | | 4 | 2 |
| E 682 SA | 640 | 320 | 256 | 128 | " | | 4 | 4 |
| E 682 BHK | ND | ND | ND | ND | " | | 4 | 2 |

) Negative control sera from mice and rabbits gave no reactions. Control antigens from uninfected mouse brains and cell cultures were negative in all tests

HAI Haemagglutination inhibition test

CFT Complement fixation test

CHI Closed hexagon immunodiffusion

IEOP Immunoelectrophoresis

M Mouse antiserum to TBE Hypr

R Rabbit antiserum to TBE Hypr

SA antigen: Sacrose-acetone extracted suckling mouse brain

BHK: Concentrated BHK 21/c13 cell culture fluid

ND Not done

Results

Four virus strains related to the TBE complex were isolated from 16 tick pools comprising 358 individuals. These ticks were collected in Sogn & Fjordane County from June 8 to 11 1976. Some data concerning the isolates are shown in Table 1. The original isolations were made in October-November 1976. Reisolation was attempted twice, in December 1976 and in April 1978, but failed with success.

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BRIEF REPORT

CHLAMYDIA TRACHOMATIS FROM MEN WITH NON-GONOCOCCAL URETHRITIS: SIMPLIFIED PROCEDURE FOR CULTIVATION AND ISOLATION IN REPLICATING MCCOY CELL CULTURE

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Caspers, P. A. *Chlamydia trachomatis* from men with non-gonococcal urethritis. Simplified procedure for cultivation and isolation in replicating McCoy cell culture. Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B, 85: 257-259 1978.

Chlamydia trachomatis was cultivated on replicating McCoy cells without the addition of antimetabolites. A further technical modification was centrifugation of the specimens at room temperature at 4000 *g*, thus making it possible to use the method in any microbiological laboratory. *C. trachomatis* was isolated from 34 of 81 patients (44.4%) with non-gonococcal urethritis. This rate compares well with reported isolation rates using nutritive agents and higher centrifugation temperatures.

Key words: *Chlamydia trachomatis*, urethritis.

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Isolation of *Chlamydia trachomatis* in cell culture is a complicated procedure. Chlamydial infections are common, and it would be a distinct advantage if the cell culture procedures were simplified. Early diagnosis is important for differential diagnostic, epidemiological and therapeutic reasons (5).

Not all diagnostic laboratories have the necessary equipment for techniques requiring an expensive temperature regulated, high-speed centrifuge.

All earlier methods have either made use of irradiated cells or an antimetabolite has been added to the cell culture medium (iododeoxyuridine, cytosine-beta, cytosine-gamma). The action of these agents is complex and may not be reproducible (4). They are thought to control or stop cell growth, thereby giving a selective advantage to *C. trachomatis*. The reagents may however induce latent viruses in cell cultures and constitute a potential biohazard to the laboratory staff (1) seemed desirable, therefore, to try out a simple, rapid method avoiding the use of antimetabolites.

Materials and Methods

Patients examined: From September 1977 a study was made of 81 men with non-gonococcal urethritis (NGU) attending the Department of Venereology of the Oslo Board of Health. Patients were included if no Gram negative diplococci were present in a smear of urethral secretion and where *Neisseria gonorrhoeae* could not be cultivated from the secretion. All the men were under 35 years of age and had not used antibiotics during the preceding 2 months.

Collection and transport of specimens: Intraurethral secretion was collected using an endourethral swab (ENT Swab Quiff, STW 142, Medical Ware and Equipment Co. Pottery Cornham, Wilts, England) (2). Specimens were placed at 4° C in a plastic capsule containing an 0.25 M sucrose-phosphate medium (3-10). They reached the laboratory within 2-3 hours after collection.

Cell culture: Monolayers of conventional, untreated McCoy cells were prepared in Sterlin vials with screw caps (50 x 18 mm, Teddington, Middlesex, England)

containing a circular cover slip 13 mm in diameter (Chance propper Smethwick, Warley England). The vials were seeded with 2×10^5 cells (7) in 1 ml of medium 199 supplied with 10% calf serum and 0.5% glucose, vancomycin and streptomycin (5) (Vancomycin was a gift from Eli Lilly Norway). The cells were incubated overnight in a CO_2 incubator in a 5% CO_2 atmosphere. The screw caps were loosened during incubation.

Isolation technique

Inoculation The technique was based on the system applied by Darougar *et al* (1) and Johnson & Hobson (5). Specimens were shaken on a Whirlinizer for 1 minute before being inoculated into dials. Aliquots of each specimen were added to two vials. The caps of the vials were tightened to prevent the escape of CO_2 and a change in pH. The inoculated vials were centrifuged at room temperature in a general laboratory centrifuge with an angle head rotor at 4000 g for 1 hour.

Incubation The cell cultures with the caps of the vials again loosened were incubated for 48–72 hours at 37° C.

Staining and microscopy After 48–72 hours incubation, the medium was removed from one vial, and the preparation was fixed with two changes of absolute methanol for 5 minutes. Methanol was replaced by freshly diluted Giemsa (9 parts tap water plus 1 part Giemsa), the preparation was stained for 30 minutes and then washed once in tap water. The preparation was washed in tap water for 1 minute, then dehydrated in acetone, drained and cleared in xylene, mounted in DPX and left for 15 minutes.

The preparations were screened by a Zeiss microscope by dark field microscopy.

A 10× objective lens was used, and the findings were confirmed with a 100× objective lens under oil immersion. The inclusion bodies showed a bright golden yellow colour while the cytoplasm and nuclei were pale brownish-green.

If the first culture was positive, the cells in the second culture were harvested and stored in a -70° C refrigerator for further studies. If the first vial was negative, the second vial was stained not later than 72 hours after incubation and examined for inclusion bodies.

Results and Discussion

During this study *C. trachomatis* was isolated for the first time in Norway. Of the 81 men with gonococcal urethritis, 36 were infected with this organism (44.4%). The isolation rate is similar to that demonstrated in earlier studies (Table 1). In the present study untreated McCoy cells have been used. Conflicting views exist as to whether non-replicating cells are really more effective than conventional monolayers for isolating *C. trachomatis*. It has been pointed out by several authors that *C. trachomatis* will grow also in untreated cells, provided that optimum conditions for each cell type are closely maintained (4, 5, 7). However there are almost no clinical studies using replicating cells.

In this study replicating cells were used thus avoiding antimetabolites and the dangers these drugs represent for the laboratory personnel. No overgrowth was experienced when the recommended cell suspension was used, and it was easy to see the inclusions by dark-ground microscopy.

The isolation procedure is also simplified by using room temperature, which seems to be adequate for centrifugation. Other techniques require a temperature of 30–35° C which means using an expensive temperature regulated centrifuge.

Although Johnson & Hobson (5) found that 2500 g may be sufficient for use in clinical laboratories, they achieved the highest inclusion counts when using 4000 g during their study of a laboratory strain of *C. trachomatis*. The inclusion counts did not increase over this g value. 4000 g is attainable by a general laboratory centrifuge.

We feel that the clinical material presented here is a support for the use of replicating cells, and the procedure described should therefore facilitate the diagnosis of chlamydial oculo-genital infections.

Thanks are due to Dr C. H. Mordhorst, Statens Serum Institut, Copenhagen, for valuable advice.

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TABLE 1 Isolation Rates (%) of *Chlamydia trachomatis* from Men with Non-gonococcal Urethritis. Centrifugation Temperature (T) Relative Centrifugal Force (g) (RCF) and Treatment of McCoy Cell Culture Before or During Incubation

| Treatment of cells | Isolation rates (%) | T | RCF | Reference |
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| x-ray irradiation | 44.5 | 35 | 2700 | (3) |
| x-ray irradiation | 42 | 30–35 | 3000 | (9) |
| iododeoxyuridine | 49 | 35 | 2750 | (6) |
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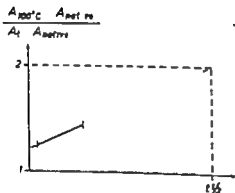
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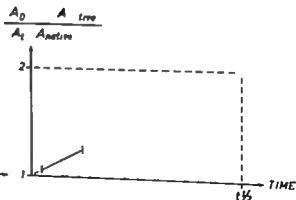
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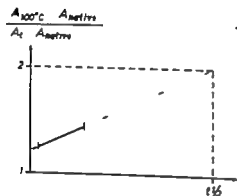
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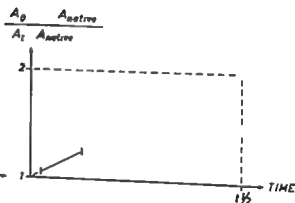
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The observation that animals were infected for longer periods than humans, and for longer than the

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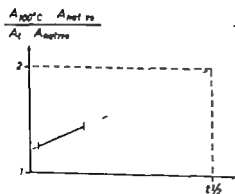
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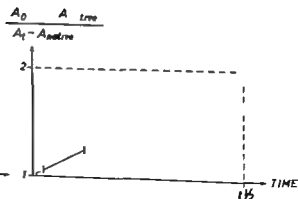
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PREVALENCE OF NON-CHOLERA VIBRIOS IN CAVUM NASI AND PHARYNX OF DUCKS

M. BISGAARD, R. SAKAZAKI and T. SHIMADA

Institute of Avian Diseases, Dept. Langes, Rypvej 1 DK-8870 Langes, Denmark and The first Department of Bacteriology National Institute of Health, Kamiyoga, Shinagawa-ku, Tokyo 141 Japan

Bisgaard, M., Sakazaki, R. & Shimada, T. Prevalence of non-cholera vibrios in cavum nasi and pharynx of ducks. Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B, 86: 261-266, 1978.

Investigations among ducks on two different farms showed a high prevalence of *Vibrio cholerae* in cavum nasi and pharynx after the ducks were admitted to the open field. In no case was *Vibrio cholerae* isolated from ducks which had never been outside the houses. At least six serovars were isolated, 0.54 being the most prevalent. All the strains isolated produced a distinctive cytotoxic effect in Y1 adrenal cells and caused fluid accumulation in rabbit gut loops. Migratory birds were incriminated as the source of faecal contamination.

Key words: *Vibrio cholerae*, non-cholera vibrios, gastroenteritis, ducks.

Magne Bisgaard, Institut for Sjukhusbakteriologi, afdeling Langes, Rypvej 1 DK-8870 Langes.

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In recent years vibrios similar to cholera vibrios have attracted increasing attention. They cannot be distinguished from each other except by their serologic antigens. Sakazaki *et al.* (1967, 1970) classified them into *Vibrio cholerae*, in which serovar 1 was assigned to cholera vibrio and other serovars to so-called non-cholera vibrio (NCV) or non-agglutinable vibrio (NAG). Non-cholera vibrios, however, are capable of causing disease resembling cholera (Gaves *et al.* 1964, McIntyre *et al.* 1965, Chatterjee & Nogy 1971, Ko *et al.* 1973, Bjek *et al.* 1974, Vences *et al.* 1974, Polinsky *et al.* 1974) and have also been connected with a type III food poisoning (Aldred *et al.* 1968, Dahlen *et al.* 1974, Zilberner *et al.* 1976).

Enterotoxic activity resembling that of cholera vibrio has been demonstrated in cell-free culture supernatant fluid from NCV (Okushi *et al.* 1972, Zimula & Carpenter 1972).

The role of animals in the maintenance of infections caused by cholera vibrio is not known. The observation that animals were infected for longer periods than humans, and for longer than the

environment was contaminated, points to a possible role played by animals (Sanyal *et al.* 1974). Also hydrobiologists may take part in the maintenance of the endemicity (Aiyra *et al.* 1976).

The isolation of NCV from ducks and their surroundings in Denmark (Bisgaard & Kristensen 1975) raised questions as to the source of infection, the prevalence of NCV among clinically normal ducks of different ages, and to what extent strains isolated are toxigenic. The report deals with these questions.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Two duck farms known to be infected with *V. cholerae* (non-cholera vibrios) were selected. Day-old ducks were placed in heated houses where they spent the first two weeks of their lives after which they were moved to an open field without natural pools or streams. The ducks had free access to a commercial feed-mixture and to water from a drinking source. From June to September ducks were received weekly from three different flocks on these two farms, and swabs from cavum nasi and pharynx were examined for the presence of *V. cholerae*.

One side of the swab was smeared over one-fifth of a blood agar plate, the rest of the plate being inoculated with a loop carrying material from the smeared portion. After overnight incubation at 37°C, the qualitative composition of the bacterial flora was determined on the basis of morphology and primary diagnostic tests (Cowan & Steele 1970, Hugh & Sakazaki 1972). Colonies typical of *V. cholerae* were subcultured and examined as described previously (Blagaard & Kristensen 1975). *V. cholerae* was expressed as percentage of the total number of colonies. Ducks routinely received for post mortem examinations during the same period from the farms mentioned and from other farms were

subjected to the same tests. 110 NCV were isolated and characterized biochemically.

Investigations regarding serovar determination were performed according to Sakazaki *et al.* (1970) and Shimada & Sakazaki (1977) and 105 strains were examined.

All but five cultures were tested for LT enterotoxin by Y1 adrenal cell tissue culture assay (Sack & Sack 1975) and for ST enterotoxin by infant mice assay (Dear *et al.* 1972). The same cultures were tested for vascular permeability factor in rabbit skin (Craig 1966) and for ability to cause fluid accumulation in rabbit gut loops (De & Chatterjee 1953).

TABLE 1. Prevalence of *V. cholerae* Serovars in Cavum Nasi and Pharynx of Ducks of Different Ages

| No of ducks examined | Flock no. | Age in weeks | No. of ducks with <i>V. cholerae</i> / No examined | | <i>V. cholerae</i> serovars isolated | No. of ducks in which <i>V. Cholerae</i> form | | | |
|-------------------------|--------------|-----------------|--|-----|--|---|------------------|-------|------------------------|
| | | | cavum nasi pharynx | | | <50 % | ≥ 50 % | <90 % | ≥ 90 % of the colonies |
| 5 | | day-old | 0/5 | 0/5 | — | | | | |
| 5 | 1 | 1 | 0/5 | 0/5 | — | | | | |
| 5 | 2 | 1 | 0/5 | 0/5 | — | | | | |
| 5 | 3 | 1 | 0/5 | 0/5 | — | | | | |
| 5 | 1 | 2 | 3/5 | 3/5 | 0-34 | Not determined | | | |
| 5 | 2 | 2 | 0/5 | 0/5 | — | | | | |
| 5 | 3 | 2 | 1/5 | 1/5 | 0-60 | 1 ^a | 1 ^p | | |
| 5 | 1 | 3 | 5/5 | 5/5 | 0-34 | 2 5 ^p | 2 ^a | | 1 |
| 5 | 2 | 3 | 5/5 | 5/5 | 0-34 | 1 4 ^p | 1 ^p | | 4 |
| 5 | 3 | 3 | 2/2 | 3/3 | 0-60 | 3 ^p | 1 ^a | | 1 |
| 4 | 1 | 4 | 4/4 | 4/4 | 0-54 | 1 2 ^p | 2 ^p | | 3 ^a |
| 4 | 2 | 4 | 4/4 | 4/4 | 0-34 | 4 ^p | 4 ^a | | |
| 5 | 3 | 4 | 5/5 | 5/5 | R, Unknown 0-2, 0-60 | 2 5 ^p | 1 ^a | | 1 |
| 4 | 1 | 5 | 4/4 | 4/4 | 0-54 | 3 ^p | 4 1 ^p | | |
| 4 | 2 | 5 | 4/4 | 4/4 | 0-2, 0-54 | 4 ^p | 2 | | 2 |
| 5 | 3 | 5 | 3/4 | 1/4 | 0-34 0-60 | 2 1 ^p | | | 1 ^a |
| 4 | 1 | 6 | 4/4 | 4/4 | 0-34 | 4 ^p | 4 | | |
| 3 | 2 | 6 | 3/3 | 3/3 | R, Unknown 0-2 0-54 | 3 3 ^p | | | |
| 4 | 1 | 7 | 4/4 | 2/2 | 0-54 0-57 | 4 2 ^p | | | |
| 4 | 2 | 7 | 3/3 | 3/3 | Unknown 0-2, R, Unknown | Not determined | | | |

No. of asterisks indicate the no. of blood agar plates discarded owing to *Proteus* swarming

^a Cavum nasi

^p Pharynx

R. Rough antigen form

RESULTS

Considerable changes in the bacterial flora in caecum and pharynx were connected with the admittance of the ducks to the open field. Mainly quantitative differences were noted between the bacterial flora of caecum and pharynx within the same age-groups.

The prevalence of *V. cholerae* in caecum and pharynx of ducks of different ages is shown in Table 1. In no case was *V. cholerae* isolated from ducks which had never been outside the houses. After the ducks were admitted to the open field, the prevalence of *V. cholerae* was very high and colonies typical of *V. cholerae* often dominated the bacterial flora, especially as far as caecum and pharynx is concerned (Table 1). Bacterial species belonging to the following genera could be isolated with varying incidence from caecum and pharynx: *Actinomyces*, *Bacillus*, *Corynebacterium*, *Lactobacillus*, *Micrococcus*, *Streptococcus*, *Streptococcus*, *Acetobacter*, *Acetobacter*, *Alcaligenes*, *Enterobacteriaceae*, *Flavobacterium*, *Moraxella*, *Neisseria*, *Pasteurella*, *Pseudomonas* and *Vibrio*. Investigations involving ducks from other farms located far away from each other showed that *V. cholerae* could be isolated from ducks received from these farms also (Table 2).

Biochemical reactions of the strains of *V. cholerae* isolated are shown in Table 3. Next out of 110

strains examined belonged to Heiberg's biovar I, the rest to biovar II. 93% of the glycerol-positive strains and 89% of the lactose-positive strains showed delayed reactions.

Not less than six different serovars were isolated (Table 4). 0.54, 0.34 and 0.60 being the most prevalent. As far as flock nos. 1 and 2 are concerned a change from serovar 0.34 to 0.54 and 0.54 to 0.2 was noted at the age of 4 and 5 weeks, respectively (Table 1). On the other hand 0.60 was isolated constantly from flock no. 3. At least two other serovars were present (Table 1). As can be seen from Table 2, 0.54 was isolated from nine out of ten farms investigated, while 0.34 and 0.60 were present on five and four farms, respectively. In five out of 29 ducks from which *V. cholerae* was isolated from both caecum and pharynx, different serovars were detected.

All the strains isolated induced a distinctive cytotoxic effect on Y1 adrenal cells. Affected cells were round, and many of them floated freely in the medium. The cytotoxic effect of the culture filtrate was destroyed by heating at 100°C for 15 minutes but was not neutralized with cholera antitoxin. However, culture filtrates induced fluid accumulation in rabbit ileal loops. Some haemorrhagic effect was demonstrated in the rabbit skin tests.

ST enterotoxin was not demonstrated in any of the culture filtrates.

TABLE 2. Prevalence of *V. cholerae* Serovars in Ducks Received from Different Farms

| Farm | No. of set-backings | No. of ducks examined | No. of culture-positive ducks | <i>V. cholerae</i> serovars isolated |
|------|------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------------------|--|
| A | 15 | 63 | 44 | 0.2, 0.34, 0.54, 0.57, 0.60 unknown, R |
| B | 7 | 33 | 16 | 0.2, 0.34, 0.54, 0.60 |
| C | 1 | 2 | 1 | 0.54 |
| D | 1 | 4 | 4 | 0.34, 0.54 |
| E | 1 | 4 | 3 | 0.34, 0.54 |
| F | 1 | 4 | | 0.54 |
| G | 2 | 6 | 2 | 0.54 |
| H | 1 | 2 | 2 | 0.34, 0.60 |
| I | 2 | 10* | 6 | 0.54, 0.60 |
| J | 1 | 4 | 1 | 0.54 |

No. of asterisks indicates the no. of ducks examined bacteriologically and in which swarming of Proteus prevented isolation of *V. cholerae*.

R. Rough surface form.

TABLE 3 *Biochemical Characters of 110 Strains of V. cholerae*

| | Sign ^a | % positive | | Sign | % positive |
|------------------------|-------------------|------------|------------------|------|------------|
| Motility | + | 100 | Glycerol, acid | (d) | 83 |
| Catalase | + | 100 | Adonitol acid | - | 0 |
| Oxidase | + | 100 | Arabinose, acid | - | 0 |
| Oxidation/Fermentation | F | 100 | Xylose, acid | - | 0 |
| H ₂ S/TSI | - | 0 | Dulcitol, acid | - | 0 |
| Haemolysis | + | 100 | Inositol acid | - | 0 |
| KCN | - | 0 | Mannitol acid | + | 100 |
| Malonate | - | 0 | Sorbitol acid | - | 0 |
| VP 37°C | d | 49 | Fructose acid | + | 100 |
| Nitrate | + | 100 | Galactose, acid | + | 100 |
| Urease | - | 0 | Glucose, acid | + | 100 |
| Arginine | - | 0 | Glucose, gas | - | 0 |
| Lysine | + | 100 | Mannose, acid | - | 8 |
| Ornithine | + | 100 | Rhamnose, acid | - | 0 |
| Phenylalanine | - | 0 | Cellobiose, acid | - | 2 |
| Indol | + | 97 | Lactose, acid | (+) | 96 |
| Gelatinase | + | 100 | Maltose, acid | + | 100 |
| Starch, hydrolysis | + | 100 | Melibiose, acid | - | 0 |
| Citrate Simmons | + | 100 | Sucrose, acid | + | 100 |
| Mucate | - | 0 | Trehalose, acid | + | 100 |
| Pellicle formation | d | 87 | Raffinose, acid | - | 0 |
| Pigment | - | 6 | Dextrin, acid | + | 100 |
| Pteridine sensitivity | + | 100 | Inulin acid | - | 0 |
| 3% NaCl, growth | + | 100 | Salicin acid | - | 0 |

^a + = most (90% or more) strains positive

- = most (90% or more) strains negative

d = some (less than 90%) strains positive, some negative

F = fermentation

0 = figures in brackets indicate delayed reactions (3 or more days)

TABLE 4 *Distribution of 105 Strains of V. cholerae According to Serovar*

| Serovar | 0 2 | 0 34 | 0 54 | 0 57 | 0 60 | Unknown | R form |
|----------------|-----|------|------|------|------|---------|--------|
| No. of strains | 7 | 27 | 37 | 1 | 20 | 8 | 5 |

R Rough

DISCUSSION

Morphological and biochemical characteristics of the strains of *V. cholerae* isolated are in accordance with those reported by Sakazaki *et al.* (1967) except as regards mucate. On the other hand Aldova *et al.* (1968) and Nănescu *et al.* (1974) describe only mucate-negative strains of NCV. Formation of a water soluble brown pigment has never been described earlier as far as is known to the authors. Chatterjee (1974) found that NCV belonged to

Heiberg's biovars I, II and V. Only biovars I and II were present in our strains. The presence of a single serovar (0 54) on nine out of ten different farms at long distances from each other indicates a very high prevalence of this serovar not least because only one submitting was received from six of the ten farms. An increased number of serovars was detected the more submissions there were from a farm. On the other hand subculturing of more than one colony typical of *V. cholerae* from cavum nasi and pharynx might have disclosed ducks with

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The source of initial contamination of the surroundings is not known. However contamination is unlikely to have originated from human sources through contaminated waste water. Since it was not possible to isolate NCV from ducks kept in houses provided with water from the same drinking water source as in the field, migratory birds foraging in NCV contaminated waste and surface water could be incriminated as the source of infection, as suggested earlier by Blaguard & Kristensen (1975). Investigations to confirm this will be carried out.

Thus NCV in our area seems to be maintained by a cycle of transmission from bird to bird through the environment. These observations, together with the findings of Araya *et al.* (1976), that infected tadpoles excreted NCV over a long period, strongly suggest that ecological interrelations between NCV and their surroundings are important factors in the epidemiology of these infections.

Dunayev *et al.* (1975) showed that NCV isolated from water and healthy persons possessed no enteropathogenic properties. However a positive rabbit gut loop test was obtained by Drashnikov *et al.* (1977) in 12 out of 16 NCV isolated from cases of diarrhoea and 12 out of 20 NCV isolated from water. All our strains isolated from caecum and pharynx of ducks were non-toxicogenic in rabbit ileal loop tests. Although NCV seem to be relatively poorer producers of enterotoxin than the O1 serovar it should be considered that the factors responsible for enterotoxin production *in vitro* and *in vivo* are not yet known (Drashnikov *et al.* 1977). A positive rabbit skin test was reported by Ohsaki *et al.* (1972) with non-agglutinable strains of *V. cholerae* isolated from human cases of diarrhoea. Some haemorrhagic effect was shown also by our strains. Unheated, cross-contaminated foods, combined with bad environmental sanitation and storage, may constitute a potential risk of food infection caused by NCV. Taking these things into consideration, NCV may well play an important part in the etiology of unknown cases of human diarrhoeal disease, since these organisms may be discarded by the usual enteric diagnostic procedures directed mainly towards isolation and identification of enteropathogenic members of *Enterobacteriaceae*.

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TABLE 3 *Biochemical Characters of 110 Strains of V. cholerae*

| | Sign ^a | % positive | | Sign | % positive |
|------------------------|-------------------|------------|------------------|------|------------|
| Motility | + | 100 | Glycerol, acid | (d) | 100 |
| Catalase | + | 100 | Adonitol, acid | - | 0 |
| Oxidase | + | 100 | Arabinose, acid | - | 0 |
| Oxidation/Fermentation | F | 100 | Xylose, acid | - | 0 |
| H ₂ S/TSI | - | 0 | Dulcitol, acid | - | 0 |
| Haemolysis | + | 100 | Inositol, acid | - | 0 |
| KCN | - | 0 | Mannitol, acid | + | 100 |
| Malonate | - | 0 | Sorbitol, acid | - | 0 |
| VP 37°C | d | 49 | Fructose, acid | + | 100 |
| Nitrate | + | 100 | Galactose, acid | + | 100 |
| Urease | - | 0 | Glucose, acid | + | 100 |
| Arginine | - | 0 | Glucose, gas | - | 0 |
| Lysine | + | 100 | Mannose, acid | - | 8 |
| Ornithine | + | 100 | Rhamnose, acid | - | 0 |
| Phenylalanine | - | 0 | Cellobiose, acid | - | 2 |
| Iodol | + | 97 | Lactose, acid | (+) | 96 |
| Gelatinase | + | 100 | Maltose, acid | + | 100 |
| Starch hydrolysis | + | 100 | Melibiose, acid | - | 0 |
| Citrate, Simmons | + | 100 | Sucrose, acid | + | 100 |
| Mucate | - | 0 | Trehalose, acid | + | 100 |
| Pellicle formation | d | 87 | Raffinose, acid | - | 0 |
| Pigment | - | 6 | Dextrin, acid | + | 100 |
| Pteridine sensitivity | + | 100 | Inulin, acid | - | 0 |
| 3% NaCl, growth | + | 100 | Salicin, acid | - | 0 |

^a + = most (90% or more) strains positive

- = most (90% or more) strains negative

d = some (less than 90%) strains positive, some negative

F = fermentation

0 = figures in brackets indicate delayed reactions (3 or more days)

TABLE 4 *Distribution of 105 Strains of V. cholerae According to Serovar*

| Serovar | 0-2 | 0-34 | 0-54 | 0-57 | 0-60 | Unknown | R form |
|----------------|-----|------|------|------|------|---------|--------|
| No. of strains | 7 | 27 | 37 | 1 | 20 | 8 | 5 |

R: Rough

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The *Treponema pallidum* immobilization test (TPI) was the first serological test employed in treponemal diseases, using the pathogenic treponeme as antigen. The originators of the test, R. A. Nelson Jr & Manfred Meyer (6), assumed that the treponemes were immobilized by a single antibody reacting with complement. For that reason, the TPI test is usually considered to be more specific than any other serological test for treponemal diseases. This opinion is shared by most authors. The outcome of the TPI test is expressed as the proportion of immobilized treponemes found. Two tubes are used for each serum, one containing unheated complement in addition to the treponemes and the serum, and one containing heated instead of unheated guinea pig serum. The latter tube serves as control. The counting of treponemes is therefore an essential part of the test procedure. The precision with which the proportion of immobile treponemes can be determined depends on the numbers of both mobile and immobile organisms counted. How many it will be necessary to count depends on the

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Analogous with games of chance, it could also be expected that the distribution of the immobilized treponemes among the total number of treponemes would be very much like a binomial distribution. The investigation by Nielsen (8) of the reproducibility of the test was based on this assumption.

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The treponemes were eluted from syphilitic rabbit orchitis and the elutions cleared of debris etc. They were then mixed with serum and evacuated as described by Nielsen (8-9), except for the following: After the clearing centrifugation (900 g), the suspension was transferred to a clean 40 ml round-bottom centrifuge tube and shaken in a machine at 150 strokes/minute, 2 cm stroke length for

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Analogous with games of chance it could also be expected that the distribution of the immobilized treponemes among the total number of treponemes would be very much like a binomial distribution. The investigation by Nielsen (8) of the reproducibility of the test was based on this assumption.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

The treponemes were eluted from syphilitic rabbit orchitis and the reactions cleared of debris etc. They were then mixed with serum and evanesced as described by Nielsen (11, 9), except for the following: After the clearing centrifugation (900 g), the suspension was transferred to a clean 40 ml round-bottom centrifuge tube and shaken in a machine at 150 strokes/minute, 2 cm stroke length for

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Zienaka Y & Carpenter C J Jr. An enterotoxin produced by non-cholera vibrios. Johns Hopkins Med. J 131 403-411 1972.

TABLE 1 *Distribution of Treponema pallidum between the Visual Fields Agrees with the Assumption that They are Poisson Distributed*

| Date | Vol. (μl) counted | Visual fields | Treponemes counted | \bar{x} | s^2 | s^2/\bar{x} | χ^2 | ν | Probability of χ^2 (%) |
|---------|-------------------|---------------|--------------------|-----------|-------|---------------|----------|-------|-----------------------------|
| 7/1-76 | 0.1172 | 50 | 132 | 2.64 | 3.26 | 1.2348 | 60.5 | 49 | 80-90 |
| | 0.1149 | 49 | 119 | 2.34 | 2.75 | 1.1752 | 54.3 | 48 | 70-80 |
| | 0.1172 | 50 | 71 | 1.42 | 1.27 | 0.8944 | 43.8 | 49 | 30-40 |
| 21/4-76 | 0.0586 | 25 | 65 | 2.60 | 2.25 | 0.8654 | 20.7 | 24 | 40 |
| | 0.0586 | 25 | 57 | 2.28 | 2.29 | 1.0044 | 24.1 | 24 | 50-60 |
| | 0.0586 | 25 | 75 | 3.00 | 2.25 | 0.7500 | 18.0 | 24 | 20-30 |
| | 0.0586 | 25 | 84 | 3.44 | 2.26 | 0.6579 | 15.7 | 24 | 10-20 |
| | 0.0586 | 25 | 83 | 3.40 | 2.17 | 0.6382 | 15.3 | 24 | 10-20 |
| | 0.0586 | 25 | 66 | 2.64 | 3.41 | 1.2916 | 31.0 | 24 | 80-90 |
| | 0.0586 | 25 | 64 | 2.64 | 2.41 | 0.9134 | 22.2 | 24 | 40-60 |
| | 0.0586 | 25 | 110 | 4.40 | 2.67 | 0.6068 | 14.6 | 24 | 5-10 |
| | 0.0586 | 25 | 68 | 2.72 | 3.13 | 1.1493 | 27.6 | 24 | 70-80 |
| 27/9-77 | 0.0586 | 25 | 106 | 4.24 | 4.69 | 1.1061 | 26.5 | 24 | 60-70 |
| | 0.0586 | 25 | 114 | 4.56 | 4.67 | 1.025 | 24.5 | 24 | 50-60 |
| | 0.0586 | 25 | 167 | 6.68 | 6.14 | 0.9196 | 22.07 | 24 | 40-50 |
| | 0.0586 | 25 | 179 | 7.16 | 7.39 | 1.0321 | 24.8 | 24 | 50-60 |
| | 0.0586 | 25 | 81 | 3.24 | 4.69 | 1.4475 | 34.7 | 24 | 90-95 |
| | 0.0586 | 25 | 64 | 2.56 | 2.42 | 0.9466 | 22.7 | 24 | 40-50 |
| | 0.0586 | 25 | 110 | 4.40 | 6.17 | 1.4015 | 33.6 | 24 | 90-95 |
| | 0.0586 | 25 | 126 | 5.04 | 3.62 | 0.7189 | 17.25 | 24 | 10-20 |
| | 0.0586 | 25 | 94 | 3.76 | 4.52 | 1.2030 | 28.8 | 24 | 70-80 |
| | 0.0586 | 25 | 123 | 4.92 | 5.74 | 1.1673 | 28.0 | 24 | 70-80 |
| | 0.0586 | 25 | 138 | 5.52 | 5.51 | 0.0081 | 23.9 | 24 | 50-60 |
| | 0.0586 | 25 | 68 | 2.72 | 2.29 | 0.832 | 19.9 | 24 | 30-40 |
| | 0.0586 | 25 | 96 | 3.84 | 4.06 | 1.0575 | 25 | 24 | 60-70 |

with the assumption that they were Poisson distributed (Chi-square 2.35 degrees of freedom 4 probability 30-40 per cent). Analogous counts have been performed on the crude suspension obtained immediately after the treponemes had been eluted from the orchans, in order to investigate whether or not agglutination had taken place. The treponemes appeared to be Poisson distributed.

Distribution of the Immobilized Treponemes

Knowledge of the mathematical model which adequately describes the distribution of the immobilized treponemes makes it possible to determine the precision with which the proportion of immobiles has been determined. It also furnishes information as to whether agglutination has taken place during the immobilization experiment.

A number of treponemal counts were made on

samples drawn from mixtures of treponeme suspensions and syphilis serum with active complement added. The mixtures had been incubated anaerobically at 35 °C for 18 hours prior to the counting and the tubes were shaken before each count, as described under methodology. The outcome of the 24 counts is shown in Table 5. Counting was performed in randomized visual fields as described. The number of immobile treponemes was counted in a predetermined fixed number. As it is necessary to count all treponemes in the visual fields examined, this number can only be approximate. The mean number of immobile treponemes per collection was determined and the binomial variance computed, $\text{bin. var} = \lambda(1-\lambda)/T$. Here λ is the mean number and T the number in the collection. Table 5 shows the date of each of the 24 counts, the number of groups of treponemes in each, the mean

10 minutes, before being distributed into the tubes with the liquids to be tested.

Reagents and nutrients. Guinea pig serum was used as complement. The animals were bled by heart puncture. Both freshly prepared guinea pig serum and serum which had been frozen at -20°C for less than 3 weeks were employed. The sera tested were syphilitic rabbit serum, non-reactive serum from non-syphilitic rabbits, and some human sera from the daily routine of the TPI laboratory.

Instruments. Carl Zeiss binocular microscope with graduated movable stage was used for counting at a magnification of $500\times$. An oil immersion plane apochromatic objective 40×1.00 mm num. aperture and oculars $12\times$ were employed. The diameter of the visual field was 0.44 mm measured with an object micrometer and the area was calculated to be 0.152 mm². Using a Carlsberg pipette, samples of $5\text{ }\mu\text{l}$ were deposited on the slides and covered with a 18×18 mm. coverslip. Air bubbles were not allowed to be present in the preparations.

Counting method. The number of treponemes in 25 or 50 visual fields was counted and the number of immobilized treponemes recorded. Each visual field was examined in its full depth using the fine adjustment head. The visual fields were chosen according to a random procedure. In order to locate each visual field, two numbers were selected at random using a table of

random numbers. Each number was one of two rectangular co-ordinates. The origin of the co-ordinate system was obtained as the two numbers of the scales of the mechanical stage which corresponded to the location of the farther left hand corner of the coverslip when the objective was focused there. Focusing of the visual field was obtained by adding or subtracting the numbers selected for the visual field from the co-ordinates of the origin. An example of distribution is shown in Fig. 1. The table of random numbers used was Table XIX by *Hald* (2). The writer performed all the counts and carried out all calculations with a Hewlett Packard pocket calculator No. 21.

RESULTS

Distribution of the Treponemes between the Visual Fields

A series of 25 counts made at varying intervals over a period of $1\frac{1}{2}$ years is shown in Table 1. The distribution of the treponemes among the visual fields in the slide preparations is shown. The mean number (\bar{x}) of treponemes per visual field was determined for each serum and the variance (s^2) of the distribution was determined from the figures. The mean value of treponemes per visual field is an estimate of the hypothetical Poisson parameter (λ) this parameter is at the same time the mean and the variance of the Poisson distribution. The ratio of the variance actually found and the estimate of the Poisson variance were computed.

The ratio s^2/\bar{x} multiplied by the number of degrees of freedom f given in column 9 should be distributed approximately as a Chi-square. Column 10 shows that good agreement was found between the figures observed and a Chi-square distribution.

A number of counts have been made in order to check the distribution of the treponemes if the tube was left standing for some time in the laboratory the distribution of the treponemes in repeated samples from the same tube, and the influence of shaking the tubes.

Table 2 shows the distribution of the treponemes among various samples taken from the same tube. The tubes were shaken before each count. It can be seen that the treponemes are distributed in a manner which conforms to the Poisson distribution.

Table 3 shows counts of treponemes in samples taken from the same tube from the bottom at varying times and leaving the tube undisturbed. The tube was left for 140 minutes. The treponemes were Poisson distributed among the samples. A slight increase in immobile treponemes can be seen.

In Table 4 the effect of shaking the suspension in various ways was examined by comparing with a count made before shaking. The variation in number of treponemes between samples agreed well

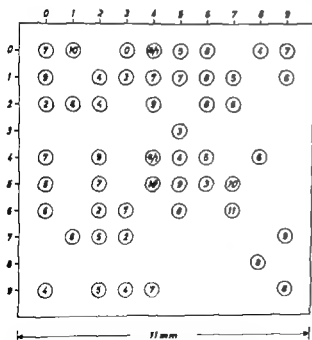


Fig. 1. The figures along the upper horizontal line and along the left hand perpendicular line indicate the numbers on the scales of the mechanical stage. The circles filled with numbers are the visual fields examined. The figures within the circles are the number of treponemes counted in each visual field. If two numbers separated by an oblique bar are found, the number to the left of the line = number of treponemes counted and the number to the right = number of immobile treponemes.

TABLE 5 *Distribution of Immobilized Treponema pallidum among the Mobile Treponemes*

| Date | n | S(x) | Immob trep | M | Em. var | s ² | s ² /bip. var | X ² | f | Probability of X ² (%) |
|---------|----|------|---------------|-------|---------|----------------|-----------------------------|----------------|----|--------------------------------------|
| 4/11 75 | 4 | 100 | 25 | 6.25 | 4.69 | 14.25 | 3.038 | 9.12 | 3 | 95-97.5 |
| 5/11 | 4 | 100 | 30 | 7.50 | 5.25 | 7.00 | 1.333 | 3.99 | 3 | 70-80 |
| 5/11 | 4 | 100 | 17 | 4.25 | 3.53 | 11.58 | 3.28 | 9.80 | 3 | 97.5 |
| 6/11 | 4 | 100 | 22 | 5.50 | 4.29 | 3.00 | 0.699 | 2.09 | 3 | 20-30 |
| 6/11 | 4 | 100 | 27 | 6.75 | 4.92 | 4.92 | 1.000 | 3.00 | 3 | 60-70 |
| 7/11 | 4 | 100 | 18 | 4.50 | 3.69 | 4.33 | 1.734 | 3.52 | 3 | 60-70 |
| 7/11 | 4 | 100 | 25 | 6.25 | 4.69 | 2.92 | 0.6226 | 1.87 | 3 | 30-40 |
| 1/4 76 | 6 | 180 | 5 | 0.83 | 0.805 | 1.71 | 2.124 | 10.62 | 5 | 90-95 |
| 2/71 | 8 | 192 | 29 | 3.63 | 3.086 | 3.98 | 1.289 | 9.03 | 7 | 70-80 |
| 11/6 | 8 | 239 | 133 | 16.63 | 7.41 | 6.84 | 0.923 | 6.46 | 7 | 50-60 |
| 10/6 | 4 | 64 | 48 | 12.00 | 3.00 | 2.66 | 0.8667 | 6.21 | 3 | 80-90 |
| 30/6 | 8 | 214 | 35 | 4.38 | 3.679 | 2.55 | 0.6931 | 4.85 | 7 | 30-40 |
| 15/7 | 4 | 83 | 69 | 17.25 | 3.105 | 1.58 | 0.5088 | 1.52 | 3 | 30-40 |
| 15/ | 6 | 120 | 27 | 4.50 | 3.534 | 6.70 | 1.8959 | 9.48 | 5 | 90-95 |
| 28/7 | 8 | 214 | 35 | 4.38 | 3.68 | 14.23 | 3.866 | 9.48 | 7 | 90-95 |
| 10/9 77 | 4 | 198 | 116 | 29.0 | 11.89 | 2.00 | 0.1682 | 0.504 | 3 | 5-10 |
| 10/9 | 2 | 81 | 48 | 24.0 | 9.84 | 18.00 | 1.8292 | 1.83 | 1 | 80-90 |
| 10/9 | 2 | 100 | 73 | 36.5 | 9.96 | 24.50 | 2.48 | 2.48 | 1 | 80-90 |
| 10/9 | 2 | 192 | 29 | 14.50 | 12.33 | 0.500 | 0.0406 | 0.0406 | 1 | 10-20 |
| 10/9 | 3 | 123 | 75 | 25.00 | 9.75 | 9.080 | 0.9231 | 1.846 | 2 | 60-70 |
| 10/9 | 3 | 114 | 63 | 21.67 | 9.32 | 24.340 | 2.6111 | 5.22 | 2 | 90-95 |
| 20/10 | 9 | 638 | 174 | 19.33 | 14.11 | 11.25 | 0.7973 | 6.38 | 8 | 40-50 |
| 20/10 | 24 | 256 | 88 | 6.18 | 2.719 | 2.23 | 0.8201 | 18.86 | 23 | 20-30 |
| 20/10 | 28 | 250 | 70 | 2.80 | 2.016 | 2.916 | 1.4464 | 34.7 | 24 | 90-95 |

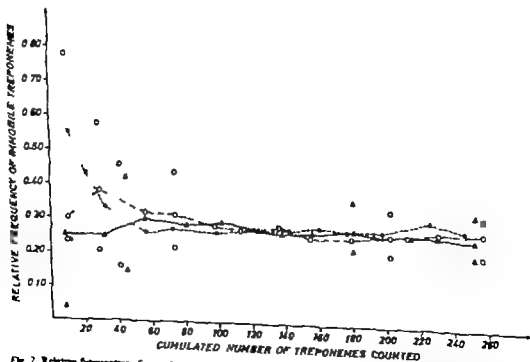


Fig. 2 Relative frequencies of immobile treponemes found in continuous counts of organisms in three samples from the same tube. The points outside the drawn graphs represent 95 per cent confidence limits corresponding to the counts.

TABLE 2. *Distribution of Treponema pallidum in Repeated Samples from same Tube The Tube was Shaken before each Count*

| Date | No. of samples | Vol. counted in each (μl) | Visual fields counted | Total number treponemes | Treponemes per sample = \bar{X} | s^2 | s^2/\bar{X} | χ^2 | f | Probability of χ^2 (%) |
|----------|----------------|---------------------------|-----------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------------------|--------|---------------|----------|-----|-----------------------------|
| 11/11 76 | 4 | 0.0586 | 25 | 180 | 45 | 32.67 | 0.726 | 2.18 | 3 | 40-50 |
| 27/9 | 5 | 0.0586 | 25 | 1191 | 238.2 | 494.4 | 2.07 | 8.28 | 4 | 90-95 |
| 9/8 77 | 6 | 0.0586 | 25 | 1465 | 244.17 | 158.57 | 0.6494 | 3.25 | 5 | 30-40 |
| 13/9 77 | 8 | 0.0586 | 25 | 545 | 68.13 | 114.95 | 1.6876 | 11.8 | 7 | 80-90 |
| 15/9 77 | 4 | 0.1172 | 50 | 1097 | 274.25 | 355.6 | 1.2966 | 3.89 | 3 | 70-80 |
| 27/9 | 4 | 0.0586 | 25 | 166 | 41.50 | 71.0 | 1.7108 | 5.13 | 3 | 80-90 |

Taking \bar{X} as an estimate of the Poisson parameter it can be seen that the treponemes are distributed among the samples as a Poisson distribution.

TABLE 3. *Distribution of Samples Taken from the same Tube Left Undisturbed in the Atmosphere of the Laboratory*

| Time (min) | Number of visual fields examined | Number of treponemes | Number of immobile treponemes |
|------------|----------------------------------|----------------------|-------------------------------|
| 0 | 25 | 264 | 4 |
| 20 | 25 | 245 | 2 |
| 50 | 25 | 240 | 4 |
| 65 | 25 | 226 | 0 |
| 72 | 25 | 240 | 4 |
| 140 | 25 | 250 | 16 |

number M of immobiles per sample (column 5), the variance computed from the figures in each sample: s^2 (column 7), and the number of degrees of freedom f (column 10). A method analogous with that described for Table 1 for the assessment of agreement between the hypothetical distribution and that observed was used. With the exception of two observations good agreement was found. The two divergent observations are from the 10th September 1977. They are unexplained. The findings recorded in Table 5 support the assumption that the probability of finding m immobile treponemes in a

TABLE 4. *Comparison between Samples Taken from the same Tube after various Ways of Shaking*

| Type of agitation | Volume counted (μl) | Number of treponemes in volume | Number of immobile treponemes | Relative frequency of immobile treponemes |
|-------------------------------|---------------------|--------------------------------|-------------------------------|---|
| None | 0.0586 | 40 | 15 | 0.39 |
| By suction w. Pasteur pipette | 0.0586 | 49 | 23 | 0.42 |
| By hand | 0.0586 | 44 | 20 | 0.45 |
| By machine | 0.0586 | 54 | 24 | 0.44 |
| By machine | 0.0586 | 44 | 20 | 0.45 |
| | | 231 | 102 | 0.44 |

The variation in number of treponemes between samples agreed well with the assumption that m was a Poisson distribution (χ^2 2.35 probability 30-40 per cent, $f=4$). The immobilized treponemes were binomially distributed

TABLE 5 Distribution of Immobilized *Treponema pallidum* among the Mobile Treponemes

| Date | n | %a | Immob. trep. | M | Run var | s ² | s ² /bin var | x ² | f | Probability of x ² (%) |
|---------|----|-----|--------------|-------|---------|----------------|-------------------------|----------------|----|-----------------------------------|
| 4/11 75 | 4 | 100 | 25 | 6.25 | 4.69 | 14.25 | 3.038 | 9.12 | 3 | 95-97.5 |
| 5/11 | 4 | 100 | 30 | 7.50 | 5.25 | 7.00 | 1.333 | 3.99 | 3 | 70-80 |
| 5/11 | 4 | 100 | 17 | 4.25 | 3.53 | 11.58 | 3.28 | 9.80 | 3 | 97.5 |
| 6/11 | 4 | 100 | 22 | 5.50 | 4.29 | 3.00 | 0.699 | 2.09 | 3 | 20-30 |
| 6/11 | 4 | 100 | 27 | 6.75 | 4.92 | 4.92 | 1.000 | 3.00 | 3 | 60-70 |
| 7/11 | 4 | 100 | 18 | 4.50 | 3.69 | 4.33 | 1.734 | 3.52 | 3 | 60-70 |
| 7/11 | 4 | 100 | 25 | 6.25 | 4.69 | 2.92 | 0.6226 | 1.87 | 3 | 30-40 |
| 1/4 76 | 4 | 100 | 5 | 0.83 | 0.805 | 1.71 | 2.124 | 10.62 | 5 | 90-95 |
| 27/1 | 6 | 180 | 29 | 3.63 | 3.086 | 3.98 | 1.289 | 9.03 | 7 | 70-80 |
| 11/6 | 8 | 239 | 133 | 16.63 | 7.41 | 6.84 | 0.923 | 6.46 | 7 | 50-60 |
| 10/6 | 4 | 64 | 48 | 12.00 | 3.00 | 2.66 | 0.8367 | 6.21 | 3 | 80-90 |
| 10/6 | 4 | 64 | 48 | 12.00 | 3.00 | 2.66 | 0.8367 | 6.21 | 3 | 80-90 |
| 30/6 | 8 | 214 | 35 | 4.38 | 3.679 | 2.55 | 0.6931 | 4.85 | 7 | 30-40 |
| 15/7 | 4 | 83 | 88 | 17.25 | 3.105 | 1.58 | 0.5088 | 1.52 | 3 | 30-40 |
| 15/7 | 6 | 120 | 27 | 4.50 | 3.534 | 6.70 | 1.8959 | 9.48 | 5 | 90-95 |
| 28/7 | 8 | 214 | 35 | 4.38 | 3.68 | 14.23 | 3.866 | 9.48 | 7 | 90-95 |
| 10/9 77 | 4 | 198 | 116 | 29.0 | 11.89 | 2.00 | 0.1682 | 0.504 | 3 | 5-10 |
| 10/9 | 2 | 81 | 43 | 24.0 | 9.84 | 18.00 | 1.8292 | 1.83 | 1 | 80-90 |
| 10/9 | 2 | 100 | 73 | 36.5 | 9.96 | 24.50 | 2.48 | 2.48 | 1 | 80-90 |
| 10/9 | 2 | 192 | 29 | 14.50 | 12.33 | 0.500 | 0.0406 | 0.0406 | 1 | 10-20 |
| 10/9 | 3 | 123 | 75 | 25.00 | 9.75 | 9.080 | 0.9231 | 1.846 | 2 | 60-70 |
| 10/9 | 3 | 114 | 85 | 21.67 | 9.32 | 24.340 | 2.6111 | 5.22 | 2 | 90-95 |
| 20/10 | 9 | 638 | 174 | 19.33 | 14.11 | 11.25 | 0.7973 | 6.38 | 8 | 40-50 |
| 20/10 | 24 | 256 | 68 | 6.18 | 2.719 | 2.23 | 0.8201 | 18.86 | 23 | 20-30 |
| 20/10 | 25 | 250 | 70 | 2.80 | 2.016 | 2.916 | 1.4464 | 34.7 | 24 | 90-95 |

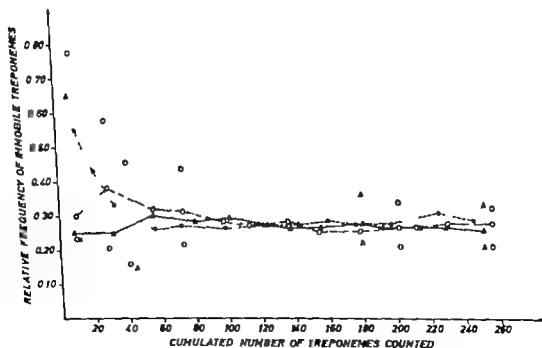


Fig. 2 Relative frequencies of immobile treponemes found in consecutive counts of organisms in three samples from the same tube. The points outside the drawn graphs represent 95 per cent confidence limits corresponding to the counts.

total of n can be predicted from the binomial probability function.

$$p(x=a) = \binom{n}{a} p^a (1-p)^{n-a}$$

and that the probability of finding not more than n immobile treponemes in n is given by the binomial distribution function.

$$P(x \leq a | n, p) = \sum_{x=0}^a \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x} \quad (A)$$

The agreement between the mathematical model just described and the observations made may also be illustrated by Fig. 2 which shows the outcome of counting treponemes in three separate samples from the same tube.

DISCUSSION

The random experiments presented in this paper indicate that the Poisson and binomial distributions are adequate mathematical models for the distribution of both motile and immobile treponemes in suspensions when examined in slide preparations. The randomization of visual fields examined was essential to establish the nature of the distributions. These two mathematical models may thus serve to determine the precision of the total counts of treponemes and the precision of the relative frequencies of immobilized treponemes. The latter depends on the number of treponemes counted and on the probability parameter of the distribution, the binomial variance of the relative frequency being $p(1-p)/n$, where n is the total number of treponemes counted and p the probability parameter of immobile treponemes, this being unknown. The relative frequency determined from observations is the best estimate of p . Fig. 3 shows the 95 per cent confidence limits of this estimate for counts of a total of 25, 50 and 100 treponemes and for relative frequencies ranging from 8 to 96 per cent.

In most laboratories, total numbers of 25 or 50 are counted and the number of immobile treponemes enumerated. Authors like Magnusson & Thompson (5) and Ledbetter & Martens (4) counted 25 treponemes, while Nielsen (9) counted both 25 and 50. The originators, Nelson & Mayer (6) counted 50 as did Harris *et al.* (3) and Portney *et al.* (10), while Müller & Pop Aceva counted 25 and sometimes 50 (7).

In the present experiments, counts of 25, 50 etc. have not been adhered to. If a predetermined

number of treponemes are to be counted, the last treponemes included in the count will frequently not be alone in the visual field. It will often be together with some other treponemes which may be those succeeding the number to be counted (e.g. n treponemes are to be counted, but the numbers $n-2$, $n-1$, n , $n+1$, $n+2$ etc. are in the visual field, and which one is number n ?). This vitiates the precision of the counting by introducing a subjective element.

The usual procedure is to incubate the serum to be tested with the same treponeme suspension in two tubes, adding unheated guinea pig serum to the one and heat-inactivated guinea pig serum to the other. After incubation, the relative frequency of immobile treponemes in each tube is determined. It is assumed that the only difference between the two samples is that the test tube contains active complement which will immobilize the treponemes if antitreponemal antibody is present in the serum, while the control tube does not contain active complement. The latter tube serves as a control of survival conditions. If the proportion of immobile treponemes in the control tube is less than that in the test tube, it may be assumed that the two tubes contain treponemes of two different kinds as regards immobilization. Let a_T and a_C be the number of immobile treponemes in the test tube and the control tube, respectively, and n_T and n_C the corresponding total numbers counted. The two relative frequencies a_C/n_C and a_T/n_T can be compared by determining the conditional probability of finding a_T or more immobile treponemes in the test tube, given that the total number of immobile treponemes is $a_T + a_C$, the number of those examined being $n_T + n_C$. Using the hypergeometric distribution.

$$P\{x \geq a_T | a_C + a_T\} = \sum_{x=a_T}^{n_T+n_C} \frac{\binom{n_T}{x} \binom{n_C}{a_C+a_T-x}}{\binom{n_C+n_T}{a_C+a_T}} \quad (B)$$

This probability can be computed for each pair of testing and control tubes containing aliquots of the same serum and the same treponeme suspension. If the conditional probability of finding the number of immobile treponemes observed in the control

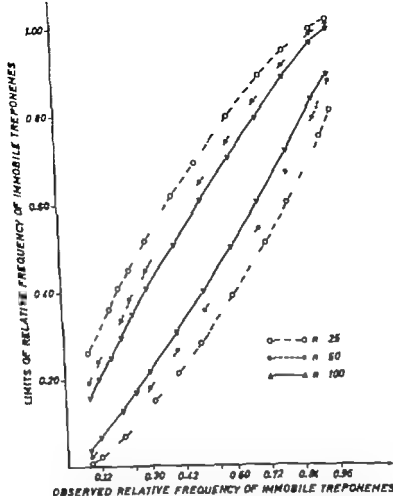


Fig. 3. 95 per cent confidence limits of the estimate of the binomial parameter p in counts of 25, 50 and 100 treponemes. The graphs were constructed from Table IX, *Field* (1). Linear interpolation was used. This explains the irregularities.

sample is less than a certain predetermined fraction α , the two samples are considered to belong to different treponeme populations as regards immobilization frequency. The fraction α was chosen to be 0.05 because the test is one-sided. Using the probability distribution described by formula (B) a table was constructed showing the conditional probability for $\alpha C = 1$ --- 6 $\alpha T = 5$ --- 14 and $\alpha T = n_C = 25$ (Table 6).

On the basis of the figures presented, the following simple rule for evaluation of the outcome of the TPI test is proposed.

1) All sera, the control samples of which contain more than 6 immobile treponemes, should be discarded and new specimens requested.

2) Where fewer than 7 out of 25 treponemes are found to be immobile in the control sample, the test is considered reactive if the probability given in Table 6 is less than 0.05.

In practice, a higher number than 25 treponemes will usually be counted, depending on the number of treponemes in the visual field in which treponeme number 25 is found. This does not affect the proposed criteria materially since the larger number will not restrict the limits proposed.

The data presented above have been obtained by counting treponemes in randomly selected visual fields. This is usually not the case in routine performance of the test. Considerable disagreement has been found between the immobilization per-

total of n can be predicted from the binomial probability function.

$$p(x=a) = \binom{n}{a} p^a (1-p)^{n-a}$$

and that the probability of finding not more than n immobile treponemes in n can be given by the binomial distribution function.

$$P(x \leq a | n, p) = \sum_{x=0}^a \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x} \quad (A)$$

The agreement between the mathematical model just described and the observations made may also be illustrated by Fig. 2 which shows the outcome of counting treponemes in three separate samples from the same tube.

DISCUSSION

The random experiments presented in this paper indicate that the Poisson and binomial distributions are adequate mathematical models for the distribution of both motile and immobile treponemes in suspensions when examined in slide preparations. The randomization of visual fields examined was essential to establish the nature of the distributions. These two mathematical models may thus serve to determine the precision of the total counts of treponemes and the precision of the relative frequencies of immobilized treponemes. The latter depends on the number of treponemes counted and on the probability parameter of the distribution, the binomial variance of the relative frequency being $p(1-p)/n$, where n is the total number of treponemes counted and p the probability parameter of immobile treponemes, this being unknown. The relative frequency determined from observations is the best estimate of p . Fig. 3 shows the 95 per cent confidence limits of this estimate for counts of a total of 25, 50 and 100 treponemes and for relative frequencies ranging from 8 to 96 per cent.

In most laboratories, total numbers of 25 or 50 are counted and the number of immobile treponemes enumerated. Authors like Magnusson & Thompson (5) and Ledbetter & Mariens (4) counted 25 treponemes, while Nielsen (9) counted both 25 and 50. The originators, Nelson & Mayer (6) counted 50 as did Harris *et al.* (3) and Portney *et al.* (10), while Müller & Pop-Aceva counted 25 and sometimes 50 (7).

In the present experiments, counts of 25, 50 etc. have not been adhered to. If a predetermined

number of treponemes are to be counted, the last treponeme included in the count will frequently not be alone in the visual field. It will often be together with some other treponemes which may be those succeeding the number to be counted (e.g. n treponemes are to be counted, but the numbers $n-2$, $n-1$, n , $n+1$, $n+2$ etc. are in the visual field, and which one is number n ?). This vitiates the precision of the counting by introducing a subjective element.

The usual procedure is to incubate the serum to be tested with the same treponeme suspension in two tubes, adding unheated guinea pig serum to the one and heat inactivated guinea pig serum to the other. After incubation, the relative frequency of immobile treponemes in each tube is determined. It is assumed that the only difference between the two samples is that the test tube contains active complement which will immobilize the treponemes if antitreponemal antibody is present in the serum, while the control tube does not contain active complement. The latter tube serves as a control of survival conditions. If the proportion of immobile treponemes in the control tube is less than that in the test tube, it may be assumed that the two tubes contain treponemes of two different kinds as regards immobilization. Let a_T and a_C be the number of immobile treponemes in the test tube and the control tube, respectively and n_T and n_C the corresponding total numbers counted. The two relative frequencies a_C/n_C and a_T/n_T can be compared by determining the conditional probability of finding a_T or more immobile treponemes in the test tube, given that the total number of immobile treponemes is $a_T + a_C$, the number of those examined being $n_T + n_C$. Using the hypergeometric distribution.

$$P\{x \geq a_T | a_C + a_T\} = \sum_{x=a_T}^{n_T} \frac{\binom{n_T}{x} \binom{n_C}{a_C + a_T - x}}{\binom{n_C + n_T}{a_C + a_T}} \quad (B)$$

This probability can be computed for each pair of testing and control tubes containing aliquots of the same serum and the same treponeme suspension. If the conditional probability of finding the number of immobile treponemes observed in the control

LIBERATION OF ENDOTOXIN DURING GROWTH OF *NEISSERIA MENINGITIDIS* IN A CHEMICALLY DEFINED MEDIUM

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Andersen, B. M. & Solberg, O. Liberation of endotoxin during growth of *Neisseria meningitidis* in a chemically-defined medium. Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B, 86: 275-281, 1978.

Modified medium 199 is well suited to the growth of meningococci if rich growth is not necessary. The bacteria were very sensitive to changes in pH and needed a good buffer capacity of the medium. Four strains of *Neisseria meningitidis* were studied. After the stationary phase had been reached, the vital cell count decreased relatively slowly. However, the total cell count remained unchanged for at least 12 hours. The standardized *E. coli* endotoxin could be detected easily by the Limulus lysate test in different protein-free, pH-adjusted and ion-balanced liquids, and the determination of endotoxin was reproducible. The Limulus lysate test was more sensitive than the rabbit pyrogen test as regards meningococcal endotoxin. Liberation of endotoxin during growth in modified medium 199 varied with strain and growth conditions. Repeated investigations showed the same pattern of growth and endotoxin liberation for each strain, also under other growth conditions. When sonication the bacteria, high yields of endotoxin were obtained from each strain.

Key words: *Neisseria meningitidis*, free endotoxin.

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Endotoxin may play a central role in the pathogenesis and production of disease manifestations of meningococcal infections (5, 8, 9, 21, 24). Endotoxin activates vasoactive amines and induces intravascular and peripheral circulatory collapse (8). Even if *Neisseria meningitidis* has less endotoxin than *Escherichia coli* or *Salmonella typhimurium*, its toxin is five to ten times more active in terms of inducing the dermal Schwartzman reaction (5).

Besides the classical rabbit pyrogen test, endotoxin can be detected by various other methods (5, 11, 18, 22). The Limulus lysate test is semiquantitative (18) and quite satisfactory as compared to the rabbit pyrogen test, if proper adjustment of pH and ion content is made and attention is paid to the inhibitory effect of protein (2, 4, 11, 15).

The purpose of this investigation was to study the growth conditions and liberation of endotoxin from *N. meningitidis* during growth in a chemically defined, protein-free medium.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Bacterial strains. Four isolates were studied, three from patients with meningitis and one from a healthy carrier (strain 247). Details of serogroups and resistance to antibiotics are shown in Table 1. The isolates were typical meningococci in terms of morphology, growth and acid production from sugars. The strains were retrieved from the Department of Microbiology, Ullevål Hospital. The serogrouping was kindly verified by E. Helten, Oslo. After isolation, the strains had been subcultivated on heated blood agar four or more times before investigation.

TABLE 6 The Conditional Probability of Finding a_T or more Immobile Treponemes in the Test Tube Given that the Total Number of Immobile Treponemes is $a_T + a_C$, the Number of those Examined being 25 for both Tubes

| a_C a_T | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|----------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|-------|
| 5 | 0.225 | 0.095 | 0.209 | 0.351 | 0.500 | 0.637 | 0.752 |
| 6 | 0.011 | 0.049 | 0.123 | 0.232 | 0.363 | 0.500 | 0.629 |
| 7 | 0.0248 | 0.024 | 0.069 | 0.145 | 0.248 | 0.371 | 0.500 |
| 8 | 0.0220 | 0.011 | 0.037 | 0.085 | 0.160 | 0.260 | 0.370 |
| 9 | 0.0382 | 0.0258 | 0.0186 | 0.048 | 0.098 | 0.173 | 0.269 |
| 10 | 0.0332 | 0.0222 | 0.0290 | 0.025 | 0.057 | 0.108 | 0.182 |
| 11 | 0.0312 | 0.0396 | 0.0242 | 0.012 | 0.031 | 0.064 | 0.116 |
| 12 | 0.0443 | 0.0338 | 0.0218 | 0.0260 | 0.016 | 0.036 | 0.070 |
| 13 | 0.0415 | 0.0314 | 0.0374 | 0.0227 | 0.0278 | 0.019 | 0.040 |
| 14 | 0.0548 | 0.0451 | 0.0329 | 0.0211 | 0.0235 | 0.0293 | 0.021 |

tubes found using the routine procedure and the random technique described when the proportion of immobile treponemes occurred in the range from 20 to 75 per cent.

The limits of error derived from the two mathematical models only concern the exactness of the counting other factors may seriously influence the outcome of the test. Two of these were investigated. 1) The sojourn of the mixture of treponemal suspension, syphilitic serum and complement outside the incubator in the atmosphere of the laboratory and 2) exposure of the serum and complement mixtures to treponemal suspensions harvested from different animals.

The result of these investigations will be published in a subsequent paper.

I am indebted to M. Weis Bentzen, Biostatistical Department, for his criticism, and I am grateful to B. B. Jørgensen and the TPI staff Treponematosis Department, Statens Serum Institut.

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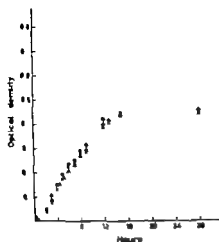


Fig. 1 Four different growth curves for strain 247 in modified medium 199 at 37°C in 5% CO₂. Each curve is the mean of two or three parallels.

Growth in medium. The bacteria were sensitive to changes in pH and grew well only in buffered medium. The CO₂ enhanced the growth but at the same time adversely acidified the medium. The buffer capacity of the medium was evaluated by phenol red during growth (colour change to yellow at pH ≤ 6.8). The change of colour had no effect on the spectrophotometric recordings. The growth pattern of each strain was reproducible, as shown in Fig. 1. All strains had different growth curves, but the differences between them were very small (Fig. 2, a, b, c, d). The exponential phase lasted between 8–14 hours, when the bacterial count was increased from 5×10^7 to 10^8 for the four strains. The corresponding increase in optical density was between $\frac{1}{2}$ and 1 logarithmic unit. After the stationary phase had been reached, the total cell count remained unchanged for at least 12 hours, while the vital cell count decreased relatively slowly. This was most evident with strain 270 (Fig. 2 b).

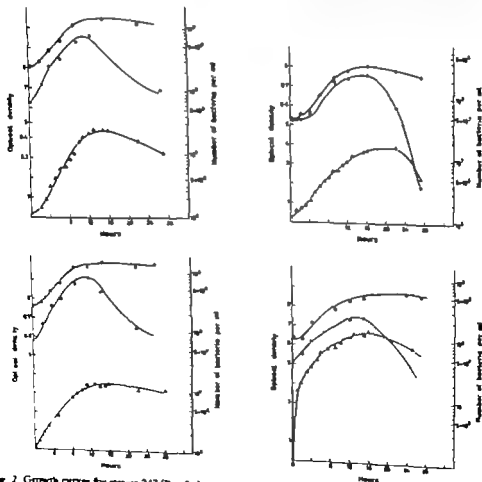


Fig. 2 Growth curves for strains 247 (Fig. 2 a), 270 (Fig. 2 b), 714 (Fig. 2 c), and 840 (Fig. 2 d). \bigcirc — \bigcirc = total bacterial count, \bullet — \bullet = viable count, \triangle — \triangle = optical density.

TABLE 1 *Meningococcal Isolates, Serogroup and Antibiotic Resistance*

| Isolate | Isolated from | Serogroup | Antibiotic resistance ^a | | | | |
|---------|---------------|-----------|------------------------------------|---|---|---|---|
| | | | S | P | C | A | E |
| 247 | Pharynx | Y | 4 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 |
| 270 | CSF | B | 4 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 |
| 714 | CSF | A | 4 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 |
| 840 | CSF | B | 4 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 |

^a Discs from AB Blodisk on lysed blood agar in 5% CO₂. S = sulphamamide, P = benzylpenicillin, C = chloramphenicol, E = erythromycin. A = ampicillin. 1 = sensitive, 2 = fairly sensitive 4 = resistant.

Medium. 9.867 g dehydrated medium number 199 (16) with Earle's unmodified salts without sodium bicarbonate (NaHCO₃), 3 g dextrose, 0.2 mg cocarboxylase and 2 g disodium hydrogen phosphate (Na₂HPO₄ 12 H₂O) were dissolved in sterile pyrogen free water to 1000 ml. The pH was adjusted to 7.5 with 1M NaOH before filtration through a pyrogen-free prefilter (Gelman Metrigard, superfine) and membrane filter (Gelman, Metrickel, G A. 8.02 µm). The pH after filtration was between 7.4 and 7.5.

Optical density (OD) Optical density was measured by Beckman Model DU 2 Ultraviolet Spectrophotometer wave length 620 nm and slit 0.04 mm. Beico nephelo culture flasks (300 ml) with a cylindrical side arm fitted to an adaptor in the spectrophotometer were used.

Before growth in liquid medium the meningococci were grown for 18 hours on heated blood agar at 37° C in 5 per cent CO₂ and harvested with a flamed platinum loop. Precultures were washed in sterile, pyrogen-free saline (0.9 per cent NaCl) three times by high speed ultracentrifugation (Sorvall) 9770 × g at 20° C. It was ascertained that all equipment was pyrogen-free, and all procedures were carried out aseptically. The inoculate was adjusted by saline to an OD of 0.6 equivalent to a colony count of 10⁸-10⁹ per ml. One ml of inoculate was transferred to 40 ml growth medium 199. There was no apparent opacity of the medium after inoculation. Vigorous agitation was applied to the growth flasks before measuring the OD. Two to three parallel flasks were used for each growth curve.

Total count. The total number of bacteria was determined by Burker's chamber. If a tendency to spontaneous agglomeration occurred, agitation on a Rotamixer was first applied in order to disperse the cells to facilitate counting.

Viable count. Aliquots of 0.1 ml were withdrawn from the culture flasks for viable counts. The culture was filtered through sterile, non-toxic filters (Extension set with final filter Travenol code 200240) with pore size 0.45 µm. The filters allowed 0-1 bacteria to pass through when 5 ml of a culture containing 10⁸-10⁹ bacteria/ml was filtered. The filtrate was stored at -20° C before examination for endotoxin.

Endotoxin Determination

a) *Limulus* lysate test. In the presence of endotoxin, *Limulus amoebocyte* lysate is transferred from liquid to a gel. *Limulus* lysate was diluted with pyrogen-free water

as described by the producer. *E. coli* endotoxin was diluted and mixed well for each dilution step, i.e. down to 0.1 ng/ml which was the lower sensitivity limit of the *Limulus* lysate test. *E. coli* endotoxin was used as positive control.

The tube method was compared with a glass slide procedure (7) and the two were found to be equally sensitive. Endpoint was easier to determine by the slide method, which also required less *Limulus* reagent (10 µl) as compared to the tube method (0.1 ml). The test could be read after a shorter period (viz. 30 minutes) than the tube technique. Before use, the reagents and samples were heated to 37° C. All solutions were mixed well immediately before use. Glass slides were placed in moist chambers to prevent evaporation (a large Petri dish with moist blotting-paper covering the bottom) and 3 drops of 10 µl *Limulus* lysate reagent were placed on the slides with a sterile pipette (Oxford pipette). Ten µl of the solution to be tested was applied to the drop of *Limulus* lysate and both were mixed well with the tip of the pipette. The moist chamber was incubated at 37° C.

A test was read as positive when gelatinization was complete and the slide could be turned upside-down without deforming the drop. Negative and positive controls accompanied each test.

b) *Rabbit pyrogen test* was carried out according to Pharmacia Nordisk (20). As positive test was used the sum of maximum temperature increase greater than 2.65° C in three rabbits during three hours after intravenous injection of pyrogenous material. Because of shortage of material, this test was not always performed on all three rabbits.

Chemical reagents. Medium 199 with Earle's unmodified salts, Gibco Bio cult Ltd, Grand Island, New York USA, Cocarboxylase, Sigma, St. Louis, *Limulus Amoebocyte* Lysate Pyrogen, lot 5 GK and 6 DZC and standard endotoxin *E. coli* lot 5110 Mallinckrodt Pharmaceuticals, St. Louis.

RESULTS

Morphology. The colonies of all *N. meningitidis* strains had smooth glistening surfaces, and were 1-3 mm in diameter on heated blood agar. After passage in the liquid medium 199 strain 247 showed a few rough colonies which disappeared on second passage on agar.

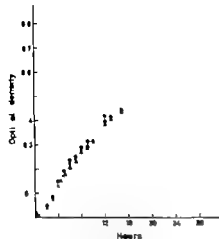


Fig. 1. Four different growth curves for strain 247 in modified medium 199 at 37° C in 5% CO₂. Each curve is the mean of two or three parallels.

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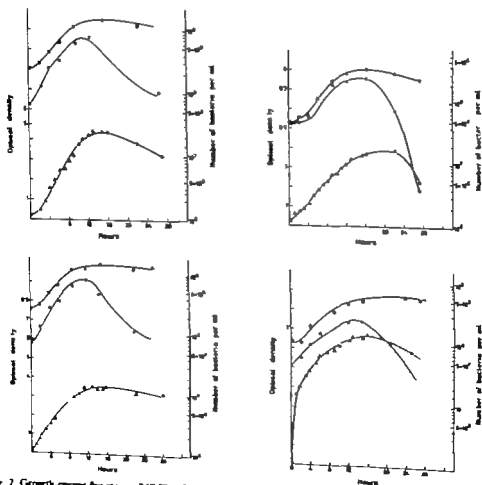


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| 270 | CSF | B | 4 | 1 | 2 | 1 |
| 714 | CSF | A | 4 | 1 | 2 | 1 |
| 840 | CSF | B | 4 | 1 | 2 | 1 |

^{a)} Discs from AB Biotek on lysed blood agar in 5% CO₂ = S = sulphonamide, P = benzylpenicillin, C = chloramphenicol, E = erythromycin, A = ampicillin, 1 = sensitive, 2 = fairly sensitive, 4 = resistant.

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Morphology The colonies of all *N. meningitidis* strains had smooth, glistening surfaces, and were 1–3 mm in diameter on heated blood agar. After passage in the liquid medium 199 strain 247 showed a few rough colonies which disappeared on second passage on agar.

TABLE 5 *Meningococcal Endotoxin. Limulus Lysate Test Compared with Rabbit Pyrogen Test*

| Dilution | Strain | | | | | | | |
|----------|--------|---|-----|---|-----|---|-----|---|
| | 840 | | 247 | | 270 | | 714 | |
| | R | L | R | L | R | L | R | L |
| 1/10 | + | + | + | + | - | - | - | - |
| 1/30 | + | + | - | + | | | | |
| 1/100 | + | + | - | + | | | | |
| 1/200 | + | + | - | + | | | | |
| 1/500 | + | + | - | - | | | | |
| 1/1000 | - | + | | | | | | |
| 1/2000 | - | + | | | | | | |
| 1/4000 | - | + | | | | | | |
| 1/8000 | - | - | | | | | | |

R = rabbit pyrogen test, L = *Limulus* lysate test, x) meningococcal endotoxin in filtrate from 20-24 hour cultures

after the stationary phase was reached. Repeated investigations showed the same pattern of growth and endotoxin liberation for each strain (Table 4). Under other growth conditions, on addition of 0.02 g FeCl₃, 0.1 g L-glutamine, 2.5 mg NAD (V factor) 1.0 mg hemin (X factor) and 0.1 mg vitamin B₁₂ to 1000 ml medium 199 strain 840 still liberated endotoxin and strain 270 did not. When the bacteria were associated, high yields of endotoxin were obtained from each strain.

Rabbit pyrogen test. The *Limulus* lysate test was compared with the rabbit pyrogen test. The culture filtrates with maximum endotoxin content from strains 247 and 840 and filtrates taken approximately at the same growth phase from the two strains which were endotoxin negative by the *Limulus* lysate test, were tested in different dilutions on rabbits.

As shown in Table 5 the *Limulus* lysate test was more sensitive for meningococcal endotoxin than the rabbit pyrogen test, both as regards samples with high and low endotoxin content.

DISCUSSION

Medium. There is considerable variation between different *N. meningitidis* strains, both as regards growth factor requirement and virulence (1, 13, 14). Each of the four strains studied in this investigation showed their own nutritional needs and varied in endotoxin liberation. The chemically-defined, protein-free liquid medium 199 was chosen, since it gave good support to growth of *N. meningitidis*, and since protein adversely influences the *Limulus* lysate test (2, 4).

During exponential growth, the bacteria are more vulnerable to osmotic or other changes which can induce autolysis (12). The observation that the total

cell count did not decrease during the first 12 hours of the stationary phase indicates that the growth medium was osmotically optimal.

With the exception of strain 270 the viable count was nearly the same after 24 and 28 hours. Thus, the endotoxin in the culture filtrates, was probably liberated mainly from whole living or dead non-disintegrated bacterial cells.

Endotoxin determination. Desautel *et al.* (4) determined the endotoxin content in meningococcal polysaccharide vaccines by both the rabbit pyrogen test and the *Limulus* lysate test and good correlation was found between the two methods. The *Limulus* lysate test has also been sensitive to meningococcal endotoxin in cerebrospinal fluid and other body fluids with a low protein content (17, 23). The lysate test was more sensitive to meningococcal endotoxin than the rabbit pyrogen test. This is in accordance with what has been found for other bacteria endotoxins (19). However the endotoxin toxicity in rabbits is dose-dependent, whereas the *Limulus* test is dependent on the concentration of endotoxin at a limited observation period (2).

Endotoxin liberation from *N. meningitidis*. Zolinger *et al.* (25) showed that outer cell wall complex could be isolated from the medium, from supernatant filtered through 0.45 µm Millipore filter and from whole *N. meningitidis* cells. They found that the relative amount in cell wall substances with endotoxic effect varied from one strain to another. Endotoxin was liberated from three of our strains, while one, strain 270 did not liberate endotoxin though under the same growth conditions. This strain still did not liberate endotoxin under other growth conditions, while strain 840 liberated only moderate amounts.

DeVoe & Glickman (6) have shown that endotoxin is liberated during the exponential growth phase. Up

TABLE 2. Sensitivity of Limulus Lysate Test to Endotoxin in Different Sterile Liquids

| Endotoxin: <i>E. coli</i> | Sterile water | NaCl | Ringer's acetate | Medium 199 | Plasma (human) |
|---------------------------|---------------|------|------------------|------------|----------------|
| 100 µg/ml | + | + | + | + | + |
| 10 µg/ml | + | + | + | + | - |
| 1 µg/ml | + | + | + | + | - |
| 100 ng/ml | + | + | + | + | - |
| 10 ng/ml | + | + | + | + | - |
| 1 ng/ml | ± | + | + | + | - |
| 0.1 ng/ml | - | - | ± | ± | - |
| 0.01 ng/ml | - | - | - | - | - |

+ = gelatinization, - = no gelatinization, ± = traces of endotoxin

TABLE 3. Meningococcal Endotoxin in Filtrates from Cultures Determined by the Limulus Lysate Test

| Isolate | Endotoxin dilution after growth | | | | | | |
|---------|---------------------------------|-------|------|--------|--------|--------|-------|
| | Hours | | | | | | |
| | 0 | 3 | 5 | 8 | 13 | 19 | 24 |
| 247 | — | 1/10 | 1/10 | 1/100 | 1/100 | | 1/200 |
| 270 | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| 714 | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| 840 | — | 1/400 | | 1/1000 | 1/2000 | 1/4000 | |

- = no detectable endotoxin. Endotoxin content in the inoculate which started the cultures. 247 1/100 270- 714 1/1 840- 1/100

Endotoxin Investigation

Limulus lysate test. The sensitivity of the *Limulus* lysate test was compared in different liquids (Table 2). The standardized *E. coli* endotoxin could be detected easily in different protein-free, pH-adjusted and ion balanced liquids such as Ringer's acetate, 0.9 per cent NaCl, sterile water and medium 199. However, detection of endotoxin was difficult in

small samples of undiluted plasma, regardless of filtration through Millipore filters (0.45 µm), or heating to 56° C for 30 minutes.

No free endotoxin was detected in filtrates from strain 270 and only traces from strain 714 (Table 3). Strain 247 liberated a small amount and strain 840 more copious amounts of endotoxin. Maximum endotoxin liberation occurred a few hours

TABLE 4. Liberation of Meningococcal Endotoxin in Filtrates from Culture of Strain 840

| Isolate | Hours | | | | | |
|---------|-------|-------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| | 0 | 3 | 8 | 13 | 19 | 24 |
| 840 | | | | | | |
| 1 | - | 1/400 | 1/1000 | 1/2000 | 1/4000 | |
| | - | 1/400 | 1/1000 | 1/2000 | 1/4000 | |
| | - | 1/400 | 1/1000 | 1/2000 | 1/4000 | |
| 2 | 1/1 | 1/10 | 1/100 | 1/100 | | 1/1000 |
| | ± | 1/10 | 1/1000 | 1/1000 | | 1/1000 |
| 3 | - | 1/1 | 1/100 | 1/1000 | | 1/1000 |
| | - | 1/1 | 1/10 | 1/100 | | 1/1000 |

- = no detectable endotoxin, ± = traces of endotoxin. 1, 2, 3 = three times repeated studies, each in two or three parallel growths.

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to 18% of the total content of endotoxin, determined on the basis of KDO (2 keto-3-deoxyoctonate) was derived from vesicles in the outer cell wall. Thus liberation of endotoxin from meningococci during growth may stem from soluble cell wall complexes possibly liberated as vesicles (3, 6). Also non-pathogenic strains of *Neisseria* grown in simple, defined media are shown to liberate different amounts of free lipopolysaccharides (10).

The fact that one of the four strains in our investigation did not liberate a detectable amount of endotoxin (although the bacteria were shown to have endotoxin in cell walls when sonicated) might be due to loss of the ability to liberate endotoxin on subcultivation. Since the four strains were handled in the same way it is likely that there was an inherent difference in the outer cell wall layer or strains. It is impossible to relate this liberation of endotoxin to specific serogroups since one serogroup B delivered large amounts of free endotoxin while the other did not liberate filtrable endotoxin at all.

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IDENTIFICATION OF *SALMONELLA* BACTERIA BY CO-AGGLUTINATION USING ANTIBODIES AGAINST SYNTHETIC DISACCHARIDE PROTEIN ANTIGENS O2 O4 AND O9 ADSORBED TO PROTEIN A-CONTAINING STAPHYLOCOCCI

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Svenungsson, B. & Lindberg, A. A. Identification of *Salmonella* bacteria by co-agglutination, using antibodies against synthetic disaccharide-protein antigens O2, O4 and O9 adsorbed to protein A containing staphylococci. Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B, 86: 283-290, 1978.

Protein A-containing staphylococci sensitized with antisera against synthetic *Salmonella* O-antigens 2, 4 and 9 representative of serogroups A, B and D respectively were used for identification of *Salmonella* bacteria by co-agglutination. Out of 416 *Salmonella* bacteria tested the reagents correctly identified all 24 serogroup A strains, 119 serogroup B strains and 39 serogroup D strains. Unexpected agglutination was registered with two of 144 strains belonging to serogroup C 2 with respect containing antiserum against synthetic O antigen 4. No agglutination occurred when 24 non-*Salmonella* bacterial strains were tested. Approximately 10⁴ bacteria were required for positive co-agglutination. As compared to standard slide agglutination with conventional anti-*Salmonella* O factor sera, the co-agglutination method was favourable in that the reactions were stronger although the concentration of antiserum used was from 20 to 200 times lower. The co-agglutination method could also be used for detection of soluble antigens in the form of lipopolysaccharides from *Salmonella* bacteria in concentrations of 1 µg/ml. When the sensitivity of the co-agglutination technique was compared with indirect immunofluorescence (IFL), the IFL method was shown to be at least 1000 times more sensitive.

Key words: *Salmonella* identification, co-agglutination, synthetic disaccharide-protein antigens.

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The accuracy in identification of *Salmonella* bacteria by immunological methods is dependent on the specificity of the antibody preparations used. Conventional procedures for preparation of mono-specific antisera against *Salmonella* O-antigens, which define the serogroup specificity involve immunization of rabbits with whole heat or formalin-killed bacteria, followed, in most instances, by absorption of serum with related bacteria for removal of cross-reacting antibodies (10-19). However the absorptions are often incomplete and

the titre of the desired antibodies is also often decreased. Moreover the absorption is a time consuming procedure.

The structure of the O-antigenic polysaccharide chain in the lipopolysaccharide (LPS) from *Salmonella* serogroups A, B and D representing about 70% of all *Salmonella* bacteria isolated in humans (21), has been determined previously (13-16, 23). The immunodominant group-specific O-antigenic determinants in these serogroups can be represented by disaccharides, which are part of the tetrasaccharide repeating units making up the O-antigenic

IDENTIFICATION OF *SALMONELLA* BACTERIA BY CO-AGGLUTINATION USING ANTIBODIES AGAINST SYNTHETIC DISACCHARIDE PROTEIN ANTIGENS O2, O4 AND O9 ADSORBED TO PROTEIN A-CONTAINING STAPHYLOCOCCI

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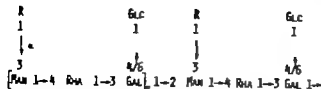


Fig. 1 Structure of the O-antigenic polysaccharide chain in the lipopolysaccharide from *S. paratyphi* A var. *durazzo* serogroup A, *S. typhimurium* serogroup B and *S. enteritidis* serogroup D according to *Hellergvist et al.* (14-16). R is paratose in serogroup A, abequose in serogroup B and tyvelose in serogroup D.

Abbreviations used. Gal, D-galactose
Glc, D-glucose
Man, D-mannose
Rha, L-rhamnose
n = 5-30

polysaccharide chain. In serogroup A, B and D the disaccharides paratose 1-3 mannose, abequose 1-3 mannose and tyvelose 1-3 mannose represent the O-antigens 2, 4 and 9 respectively (Fig. 1). These antigenic determinants have been synthesized and linked to bovine serum albumin (BSA) as an immunogenic carrier (1, 2, 11, 12, 24). Antisera from rabbits immunized with the synthetic disaccharide-protein conjugates were shown to be highly specific when tested in quantitative precipitation, passive haemagglutination, enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) and complement-mediated bactericidal tests (4, 11, 18). We also demonstrated the high specificity of these antisera when used in indirect immunofluorescence for identification of *Salmonella* bacteria (26, 27).

The co-agglutination (COA) method introduced by *Kronvall* (20) is a simple and rapid method for serological grouping of bacteria (6-9, 20, 25). The reagent consists of *Staphylococcus aureus* bacteria containing protein A which reacts with the Fc part of immunoglobulin G (IgG). This leaves the antigenic binding site of IgG free for interaction with antigen.

The present paper deals with the use of the antisera against synthetic disaccharide-protein antigens for sensitization of protein A-containing staphylococci for identification of *Salmonella* bacteria by COA. The method was also compared with the standard slide agglutination test (SSA) and its sensitivity compared with that of the indirect immunofluorescence test (IFL).

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Bacterial strains and cultivation methods. The enterobacterial strains used came from the culture collection at the Department of Bacteriology, National Bacteriological Laboratory, Stockholm, Sweden, and from fresh faecal

samples delivered to the laboratory for examination of pathogenic enteric bacteria.

Isolation and identification of the bacteria were performed as described elsewhere (10, 19). *Salmonella* bacteria were isolated on desoxycholate-citrate agar plates (Do-agar, Oxoid, CAI 35) and on brilliant green-phenol red agar plates (BG-agar) after enrichment in Rappaport's broth. Some of the *Salmonella* bacteria were also grown on blood agar base (BA, no. 2 Oxoid, CAI 271) and endo-agar plates. For comparison of the sensitivity of COA with the sensitivity of IFL, the bacteria were diluted in phosphate buffered saline (PBS) (pH 7.2). The concentration range was from 2×10^9 to 2×10^4 bacteria/ml in tenfold dilution steps.

Staphylococcus aureus strain Cowan 1, known to produce large amounts of protein A, was used for preparation of COA reagents. The strain came from Professor *Tord Holme*, Department of Bacteriology, Karolinska Institute, Stockholm, Sweden.

Lipopolysaccharide extraction. Lipopolysaccharides (LPS) were extracted from *S. paratyphi* A var. *durazzo* (O-antigen 2, 12₁, 12₃), *S. typhimurium* strain SH4809 (O-antigen 4, 5, 12₂) and *S. enteritidis* strain SH1262 (O-antigen 9, 12₂) as described previously (22).

Synthetic immunogens and immunization procedure. The synthesis of the immunogens methyl 3-O-(α -paratopyranosyl)- α -D-mannopyranoside, methyl 3-O-(α -abequopyranosyl)- α -D-mannopyranoside and β -isothiocyanatophenyl 3-O-(α -tyvelopyranosyl)- α -D-mannopyranoside, representing *Salmonella* O-antigens 2, 4 and 9 respectively, has been described previously (1, 2, 12). The immunogens were coupled to bovine serum albumin (BSA) via the synthesis of the phenylisothiocyanate disaccharide glycoside, as described previously (11, 24). In this investigation the immunogens will be referred to as PM BSA (O2-specificity), AM BSA (O4-specificity) and TM BSA (O9-specificity). Immunization of rabbits with the synthetic disaccharide-protein conjugates was performed as described previously (26, 27). Quantitative antibody determinations using ELISA (3, 5) with the various lipopolysaccharides and BSA as antigens, showed that more than half of the antibody specificity in the PM BSA, AM BSA and TM BSA antisera was directed against the disaccharide haptens as compared to BSA (data not shown). *Salmonella* O factor sera for SSA tests were prepared according to *Kaufmann* (19).

Preparation of protein A-containing staphylococci. Preparation of the staphylococci was performed essentially as described by *Kronvall* (20). The bacteria were grown overnight at 37°C in Trypticase soy broth (TSB, BBL 11768). The suspension was centrifuged (3000 g + 3°C, 15 min), the supernatant discarded and the pellet resuspended in PBS. This washing procedure was repeated three times. The bacteria were then treated with 0.5% formaldehyde for three hours at room temperature. After three additional washing procedures in PBS, the bacteria were resuspended in 10% (v/v) in PBS. Following heat treatment at 80°C for ten minutes, the washing procedure was repeated twice and the bacteria were finally resuspended to 10% as before. The bacteria were then stored at 4°C until used (usually within two

water). A 10% suspension of staphylococci prepared in this way was shown to bind approximately 0.4 μg of IgG/ml as estimated essentially by quantitative methods described elsewhere (21). The estimation was performed at Pharmacia Diagnostics, Uppsala, Sweden).

Preparation of sensitized staphylococci 0.1 ml of serum was added to 1 ml of the 10% formaldehyde and heat-treated staphylococcal suspension. The mixture was kept at room temperature for three hours under continuous agitation. The suspension was centrifuged (3000 g, $+3^{\circ}\text{C}$, 15 min) and the sensitized bacteria were washed twice in PBS and subsequently resuspended to 1% (v/v) and 2% (v/v) in PBS. The reagent was stored at $+4^{\circ}\text{C}$ until used (usually within two weeks).

Co-agglutination (COA) test A few colonies of the bacterial strains, or 0.05 ml of the bacterial suspension to be investigated, were suspended in 0.05 ml of COA reagent on a glass slide, which was rocked back and forth for two minutes. Agglutination was registered during this period and was recorded as 2+ when clear by the naked eye, and as 1+ if a magnifying glass was needed for observation.

Indirect immunofluorescence (IFL) test The indirect immunofluorescence method was used as described previously (26). The anti P21-BSA, AM-BSA and TM-BSA sera were diluted 1/160, 1/80 and 1/160 respectively. The fluorescein-isothiocyanate conjugated sheep anti rabbit globulin, marker F/P ratio 4.6, was obtained from the Department of Immunology, National Bacteriological Laboratory, Stockholm, Sweden. The working titre of the conjugate was 1/40. A Leitz orthoplan fluorescence microscope was used with incident light and a HBO-200 mercury lamp as light source and a magnification of 750 \times . The fluorescence reactions were estimated as described earlier (26).

Co-agglutination (COA) Compared with Standard Slide Agglutination (SSA) with Known *Salmonella* Bacteria

Staphylococcus aureus Cowan I bacteria were sensitized with various dilutions of sera against P21 BSA (O2), AM-BSA (O4) and TM BSA (O9). The reagents were then tested against indicator strains to determine a suitable working dilution for each serum. The indicator strains used were *S. paratyphi* A (O-antigen 2, 12), *S. typhimurium* (O-antigen 4, 5, 12) and *S. enteritidis* (O-antigen 9, 12). The endpoint titre of the three sera used, defined as the highest dilution which gave a 2+ agglutination, was 1/10 (corresponding to a final serum dilution of 1/1000) when the sensitized staphylococci were suspended to 1% (v/v) in PBS and 1/20 (corresponding to a final serum dilution of 1/1000) when suspended to 2% (v/v) (Table 1). When the reagents were tested against the heterologous indicator bacteria, no agglutination occurred at any serum dilution. Nor did unsensitized staphylococci give any agglutination with the indicator bacteria. A 1% suspension of staphylococci sensitized with serum diluted 1/5 (all three anti-sera) was used in most of the subsequent experiments. Routinely prepared *Salmonella* O factor sera 2, 4 and 9 for the SSA were used in dilutions 1/5, 1/20 and 1/50 respectively.

A total of 124 *Salmonella* bacteria were tested against the three reagents. The strains represented *Salmonella* serogroup A (O1 2, 12), B (O1 4, 5

TABLE 1. Co-agglutination (COA) of *Salmonella* Bacteria with Staphylococci Sensitized with Different Dilutions of Antisera against PM-BSA, AM-BSA and TM BSA

| Reagent containing staphylococci against | Serum dilutions used for sensitization | | | | |
|--|--|--------|---------|--------|------|
| | UD ^a | 1/5 | 1/10 | 1/20 | 1/40 |
| PM-BSA ^b | 2+(15) | 2+(20) | 2+(120) | — | — |
| AM-BSA ^b | 2+(1) | 2+(15) | 2+(120) | — | — |
| TM-BSA ^b | 2+(15) | 2+(20) | 2+(120) | — | — |
| PM-BSA ^c | 2+(1) | 2+(15) | 2+(40) | 2+(90) | — |
| AM-BSA ^c | 2+(1) | 2+(15) | 2+(40) | 2+(90) | — |
| TM-BSA ^c | 2+(1) | 2+(15) | 2+(40) | 2+(90) | — |

The PM-BSA reagent was tested against a *S. paratyphi* A strain
 The AM-BSA *S. typhimurium* strain
 The TM-BSA *S. enteritidis* strain

^b undiluted

^c sensitized staphylococci suspended in 1% in PBS

^d sensitized staphylococci suspended in 2% in PBS

The number of seconds for agglutination clearly visible to the naked eye to occur is shown in brackets.

TABLE 2. Co-agglutination (COA) Compared with Standard Slide Agglutination (SSA) of Known *Salmonella* Bacteria For the Co-agglutination Test Staphylococci Sensitized with Anti PM BSA Anti AM BSA and Anti TM BSA Sera were Used For the Standard Slide Agglutination Test *Salmonella* O Factor Sera 2, 4 and 9 were Used

| Salmonella serogroup | No of strains | No positive in COA% with anti | | | | | | | | | | | | No positive in SSA% with anti | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-------------------------------|---------------|-------------------------------|----|----|----|--------|----|----|----|--------|----|----|----|-------------------------------|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|
| | | PM BSA | | | | AM BSA | | | | TM BSA | | | | O2 | | | | O4 | | | | O9 | | | | |
| | | E | BA | Bg | Dc | E | BA | Bg | Dc | E | BA | Bg | Dc | E | BA | Bg | Dc | E | BA | Bg | Dc | E | BA | Bg | Dc | |
| A (O1,2,12) | 24 | 24 | 24 | 24 | 24 | 0 | | | | 0 | | | | 22 | 8 | 23 | 9 | 0 | | | | | | | 0 | |
| B (O1,4,5,12) | 25 | 0 | | | | 25 | 25 | 25 | 25 | 0 | | | | 0 | | | | 25 | 25 | 25 | 25 | 0 | | | | |
| C (O6,7,6,8,8,20) | 25 | 0 | | | | 1 | | | | 0 | | | | 0 | | | | 0 | | | | | | | 0 | |
| D (O1,9,12) | 25 | 0 | | | | 0 | | | | 25 | 25 | 25 | 22 | 0 | | | | 0 | | | | | 25 | 25 | 25 | 24 |
| E (O3,10,3,15,3,34,1,3,19) | 25 | 0 | | | | 0 | | | | 0 | | | | 0 | | | | 0 | | | | | | | 0 | |

2+ reactions

E = endo-agar Bg = brilliant green-phenol red agar
BA = blood agar base Dc = desoxycholate-citrate agar

No entry = reaction not determined

12) C (O6 7 6 8 8 20), D (O1 9 12), and E (O3 10 3 15 3 34 1 3 19) Each strain was grown on four different substrates: blood agar base (BA), endo-agar, desoxycholate-citrate agar (Dc-agar) and brilliant green-phenol red agar (Bg-agar). In COA, all serogroups A B and D bacteria gave a strong and direct agglutination (within seconds) with the homologous reagent, irrespective of whether the bacteria were grown on BA, endo-agar or Bg-agar (Table 2). When colonies from Dc-agar were tested, the agglutination was more difficult to record, but was still positive. None of the strains gave a positive reaction with the heterologous reagent (tested only with colonies grown on endo-agar). Strains representing serogroups C and E did not cause agglutination, with one exception. One of 14 strains belonging to serogroup C2 agglutinated with the anti AM BSA sensitized reagent (Table 2). However, the agglutination could not be seen until after 1 min.

When SSA with factor O2, O4 and O9 sera were used, the reactions were comparable with COA as regards bacteria belonging to serogroups B and D (Table 2). Of the serogroup A bacteria grown on endo-agar 22 out of 24 agglutinated in the factor O2 serum, the agglutination was relatively weak, although visible to the naked eye. In many instances

no agglutination was seen with colonies grown on the other substrates. No agglutination occurred when bacteria belonging to serogroups C and E were tested (Table 2).

Co-agglutination of Unknown Bacteria from Faecal Samples

The applicability of the COA method for typing *Salmonella* bacteria was subsequently investigated by testing unknown enteric bacteria from fresh faecal samples. Most of the bacterial colonies tested were taken from Bg-agar or endo-agar. A total of 316 bacterial strains were tested and also identified by conventional methods. All 94 *Salmonella* serogroup B strains and 14 serogroup D strains gave a strong and direct agglutination in homologous reagents (Table 3). No false positive reactions were observed. Out of 184 strains representing *Salmonella* serogroups C1 (O6 7) C2 (O6 8), E1 (O3 10) E4 (O1 3 19) G2 (O1 13 23), K (O18) and L (O21) positive reaction was observed with one strain belonging to serogroup C2 with the anti AM BSA sensitized reagent. No positive reactions were recorded among the 24 non-*Salmonella* strains (Table 3). Strains belonging to the genus *Proteus* dominated in this group. No *Salmonella* serogroup

TABLE 3. Co-agglutination (COA) of Suspect *Salmonella* Bacteria

| Serogroup | No of strains | No. of positive in COA* with anti | | | |
|--------------------------|---------------|-----------------------------------|---------|---------|-----|
| | | PSI BSA | ASI BSA | TSI BSA | BSA |
| B | 94 | 0 | 94 | 0 | |
| O1 4,5 12) 15 species | | | | | |
| C1 | 22 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| O4,7) 8 species | | | | | |
| C2 | 130 | 0 | 1 | 0 | |
| O6 II) 4 species | | | | | |
| D1 | 14 | 0 | 0 | 14 | |
| O1 9 12) 4 species | | | | | |
| E1 | 20 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| O3 10) 5 species | | | | | |
| E4 | 9 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| O1 3 19) 2 species | | | | | |
| G2 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| O1 13,23) 1 species | | | | | |
| K (O18) | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| 1 species | | | | | |
| L (O21) | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| 1 species | | | | | |
| Non <i>Salmonella</i> | 24 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| Total | 316 | 0 | 95 | 14 | |

* 2 reactions were recorded

A bacteria were found among the samples examined.

Co-agglutination of Lipopolysaccharides from *Salmonella* Bacteria

One advantage of the COA method as compared to SSA is the ability to detect soluble antigens (20-25). Lipopolysaccharides (LPS) extracted from *S. paratyphi* A var. *dissezzo* (O2, 12, 12₂), *S. typhi* *muenchen* SH4809 (O4, 5, 12₂) and *S. enteritidis* SH1262 (O9, 12₂) were suspended in PBS in tenfold dilution steps in concentrations ranging from 10³ µg/ml to 10⁻³ µg/ml. 0.05 ml of each suspension was added to 0.05 ml of COA reagents as before. Agglutination in homologous reagents occurred in concentrations from 1 µg/ml and upwards. No agglutination was seen when lipopolysaccharides in concentrations of up to 1000 µg/ml were tested against heterologous reagents (Table 4). No agglutination appeared when unstimulated staphylococci were used. It should be stressed that the agglutination reactions were evident but not as strong as when whole bacteria were tested. Furthermore, the agglutination did not appear until after 90 seconds, although undiluted serum was used to sensitize the staphylococci.

Sensitivity of the Co-agglutination Method Compared with that of Indirect Immunofluorescence

A further investigation was carried out for the purpose of comparing the sensitivity of the COA method with that of indirect immunofluorescence. Overnight cultures in nutrient broth (Difco, Bacto no 3) of the indicator bacteria (*S. paratyphi* A, *S. typhimurium* and *S. enteritidis*) were suspended in PBS and diluted from 2 × 10⁸ bacteria/ml to 2 × 10⁴ bacteria/ml, using tenfold dilution steps. 0.05 ml of each suspension was added to the same volume of COA reagent and observed for agglutination as before. 0.05 ml of the same bacterial

TABLE 4. Co-agglutination (COA) of Lipopolysaccharides (LPS) Extracted from *S. paratyphi* A var. *dissezzo*, *S. typhimurium* SH4809 and *S. enteritidis* SH1262

| Reagent containing staphylococcus antigen | COA* of LPS | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|--|---|----|----|---|---|---|----|------------------------------|----|----|---|---|----|----|----|
| | <i>S. paratyphi</i> A var. <i>dissezzo</i> | | | | | | | | <i>S. typhimurium</i> SH4809 | | | | | | | |
| | conc. µg/ml | | | | | | | | conc. µg/ml | | | | | | | |
| PSI BSA | 2+ | + | 2+ | 1+ | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| ASI BSA | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 2+ | 2+ | 2+ | 1+ | - | - | - | - | - |
| TSI BSA | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 2+ | 2+ | 2+ |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 1+ | - | - |

* The agglutination was not as clear as when testing whole bacteria and did not appear until after 90 seconds

TABLE 2 Co-agglutination (COA) Compared with Standard Slide Agglutination (SSA) of Known *Salmonella* Bacteria. For the Co-agglutination Test *Staphylococci* Sensitized with Anti PM BSA Anti AM BSA and Anti TM BSA Sera were Used For the Standard Slide Agglutination Test *Salmonella* O Factor Sera 2, 4 and 9 were Used

| Salmonella serogroup | No. of strains | No. positive in COA with anti sera | | | | | | | | | | | | No. positive in SSA with anti sera | | | | | | | | | | | |
|------------------------------|----------------|------------------------------------|----|----|----|--------|----|----|----|--------|----|----|----|------------------------------------|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|
| | | PM BSA | | | | AM BSA | | | | TM BSA | | | | O2 | | | | O4 | | | | O9 | | | |
| | | E | BA | Bg | Dc | E | BA | Bg | Dc | E | BA | Bg | Dc | E | BA | Bg | Dc | E | BA | Bg | Dc | E | BA | Bg | Dc |
| A (O1,2,12) | 24 | 24 | 24 | 24 | 24 | 0 | | | | 0 | | | | 22 | 8 | 23 | 9 | 0 | | | | 0 | | | |
| B (O1,4,5,12) | 25 | 0 | | | | 25 | 25 | 25 | 0 | | | | | 0 | | | | 25 | 25 | 25 | 25 | 0 | | | |
| C (O6,7,6,8,8,20) | 25 | 0 | | | | 1 | | | | 0 | | | | 0 | | | | 0 | | | | 0 | | | |
| D (O1,9,12) | 25 | 0 | | | | 0 | | | | 25 | 25 | 25 | 22 | 0 | | | | 0 | | | | 25 | 25 | 25 | |
| E (O3,10,3,15,3,4,1,3,19) | 25 | 0 | | | | 0 | | | | 0 | | | | 0 | | | | 0 | | | | 0 | | | |

*) 2+ reactions

E = endo-agar Bg = brilliant green-phenol red agar
BA = blood agar base Dc = desoxycholate-citrate agar

No entry = reaction not determined

12), C(O6 7 6 8 8 20), D(O1 9 12) and E(O3 10 3 15 3 34; 1 3 19). Each strain was grown on four different substrates, blood agar base (BA), endo-agar, desoxycholate-citrate agar (Dc-agar) and brilliant green-phenol red agar (Bg-agar). In COA, all serogroups A, B and D bacteria gave a strong and direct agglutination (within seconds) with the homologous reagent, irrespective of whether the bacteria were grown on BA, endo-agar or Bg-agar (Table 2). When colonies from Dc-agar were tested, the agglutination was more difficult to record but was still positive. None of the strains gave a positive reaction with the heterologous reagent (tested only with colonies grown on endo-agar). Strains representing serogroups C and E did not cause agglutination, with one exception. One of 14 strains belonging to serogroup C2 agglutinated with the anti AM BSA sensitized reagent (Table 2). However the agglutination could not be seen until after 1 min.

When SSA with factor O2, O4 and O9 sera were used, the reactions were comparable with COA as regards bacteria belonging to serogroups B and D (Table 2). Of the serogroup A bacteria grown on endo-agar 22 out of 24 agglutinated in the factor O2 serum, the agglutination was relatively weak, although visible to the naked eye. In many instances

no agglutination was seen with colonies grown on the other substrates. No agglutination occurred when bacteria belonging to serogroups C and E were tested (Table 2).

Co-agglutination of Unknown Bacteria from Faecal Samples

The applicability of the COA method for typing *Salmonella* bacteria was subsequently investigated by testing unknown enteric bacteria from fresh faecal samples. Most of the bacterial colonies tested were taken from Bg-agar or endo-agar. A total of 316 bacterial strains were tested and also identified by conventional methods. All 94 *Salmonella* serogroup B strains and 14 serogroup D strains gave a strong and direct agglutination in homologous reagents (Table 3). No false positive reactions were observed. Out of 184 strains representing *Salmonella* serogroups C1 (O6 7), C2 (O6 8), E1 (O3 10), E4 (O1 3 19), G2 (O1 13 23), H (O18) and L (O21) positive reaction was observed with one strain belonging to serogroup C2 with the anti AM BSA sensitized reagent. No positive reactions were recorded among the 24 non-*Salmonella* strains (Table 3). Strains belonging to the genus *Proteus* dominated in this group. No *Salmonella* serogroup

TABLE 3. Co-agglutination (COA) of Susceptible *Salmonella* Bacteria

| Serogroup | No. of strains | No. of positive in COA ^a with anti | | | |
|--------------------------------|----------------|---|--------|--------|-----|
| | | PM BSA | AM BSA | TM BSA | BSA |
| B (O1,4,5,12) 15 species | 94 | 0 | 94 | 0 | |
| C1 (O6,7) 8 species | 22 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| C2 (O6,12) 4 species | 130 | 0 | 1 | 0 | |
| D1 (O1,9,12) 4 species | 14 | 0 | 0 | 14 | |
| E1 (O3,10) 5 species | 20 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| E4 (O1,3,19) 2 species | 9 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| G2 (H1,13,23) 1 species | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| K(O18) 1 species | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| L(O21) 1 species | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| Non-Salmonella | 24 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| Total | 316 | 0 | 95 | 14 | |

^a 2 reactions were recorded

A bacteria were found among the samples examined.

Co-agglutination of Lipopolysaccharides from Salmonella Bacteria

One advantage of the COA method as compared to SSA is the ability to detect soluble antigens (20-25). Lipopolysaccharides (LPS) extracted from *S. paratyphi* A var. *durazzo* (O2, 12₁, 12₂), *S. typhi* *muenchen* SH4809 (O4 5 12₂) and *S. enteritidis* SH1262 (O9 12₂) were suspended in PBS in tenfold dilution steps in concentrations ranging from 10³ µg/ml to 10⁻³ µg/ml. 0.05 ml of each suspension was added to 0.05 ml of COA reagents as before. Agglutination in homologous reagents occurred in concentrations from 1 µg/ml and upwards. No agglutination was seen when lipopolysaccharides in concentrations of up to 1000 µg/ml were tested against heterologous reagents (Table 4). No agglutination appeared when unsensitized staphylococci were used. It should be stressed that the agglutination reactions were evident but not as strong as when whole bacteria were tested. Furthermore, the agglutination did not appear until after 90 seconds, although undiluted serum was used to sensitize the staphylococci.

Sensitivity of the Co-agglutination Method Compared with that of Indirect Immunofluorescence

A further investigation was carried out for the purpose of comparing the sensitivity of the COA method with that of indirect immunofluorescence. Overnight cultures in nutrient broth (Difco, Bacto no 3) of the indicator bacteria (*S. paratyphi* A, *S. typhimurium* and *S. enteritidis*) were suspended in PBS and diluted from 2 × 10⁹ bacteria/ml to 2 × 10⁻⁴ bacteria/ml, using tenfold dilution steps. 0.05 ml of each suspension was added to the same volume of COA reagent and observed for agglutination as before. 0.05 ml of the same bacterial

TABLE 4. Co-agglutination (COA) of Lipopolysaccharides (LPS) Extracted from *S. paratyphi* A var. *durazzo*, *S. typhimurium* SH4809 and *S. enteritidis* SH1262

| Reagent containing antiserum against | COA ^a of LPS | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| | <i>S. paratyphi</i> A var. <i>durazzo</i> | | | | | <i>S. typhimurium</i> SH4809 | | | | | <i>S. enteritidis</i> SH1262 | | | | |
| | conc. µg/ml | 10 ³ | 10 ² | 10 ¹ | 10 ⁰ | conc. µg/ml | 10 ³ | 10 ² | 10 ¹ | 10 ⁰ | conc. µg/ml | 10 ³ | 10 ² | 10 ¹ | 10 ⁰ |
| PM-BSA | 2+ | 2+ | 2+ | 1+ | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| AM-BSA | - | - | - | - | - | 2+ | 2+ | 2+ | 1+ | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| TM-BSA | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 2+ | 2+ | 2+ | 1+ | - |

^a The agglutination was not as clear as when testing whole bacteria and did not appear until after 90 seconds.

TABLE 5 Sensitivity of Co-agglutination (COA) Compared with Indirect Immunofluorescence (IFL) *S. paratyphi A*, *S. typhimurium* and *S. enteritidis* Tested against Homologous Reagents (Anti PM BSA, Anti AM BSA and Anti TM BSA Sera Respectively)

| No. bacteria/ 0.05 ml PBS | <i>S. paratyphi A</i> | COA of <i>S. typhimurium</i> | <i>S. enteritidis</i> | <i>S. paratyphi A</i> | IFL* on <i>S. typhimurium</i> | <i>S. enteritidis</i> |
|------------------------------|-----------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|----------------------------------|-----------------------|
| 10 ⁸ | 2+ | 2+ | 2+ | positive | positive | positive |
| 10 ⁷ | — | — | — | positive | positive | positive |
| 10 ⁶ | — | — | — | positive | positive | positive |
| 10 ⁵ | — | — | — | positive | positive | positive |
| 10 ⁴ | — | — | — | negative | negative | negative |
| 10 ³ | — | — | — | negative | negative | negative |

* Positive reaction = at least 10 bacteria/50 visual fields.

suspension was placed on a glass slide for IFL examination. The bacteria were tested only against homologous reagents, since the specificity was well established.

With the COA method, the reactions were positive only with the highest concentration of bacteria ($2 \times 10^8/\text{ml} = 10^8$ bacteria in the test). In IFL, positive reactions (defined as at least 10 bacteria/50 visual fields) could be seen when using a concentration of 10^5 bacteria/0.05 ml PBS (Table 5). Thus, with the criteria used, the IFL method was at least 1000 times more sensitive than the COA method for identification of *Salmonella* bacteria.

DISCUSSION

Sensitization of *Staphylococcus aureus* strain Cowan I with antisera against PM BSA (O-antigen 2), AM BSA (O-antigen 4) and TM BSA (O-antigen 9) resulted in excellent diagnostic reagents for detection of bacteria belonging to *Salmonella* serogroups A, B and D respectively (Tables 1–3). With the dilutions used, the agglutination reactions appeared within few seconds and were strong. This was true irrespective of the substrate from which the colonies were taken (Table 2).

The SSA method, using factor O2 serum and *S. paratyphi A* bacteria, was positive when the colonies were taken from endo- and Bg-agar only. Colonies grown on Dc agar and BA often failed to give agglutination. The agglutination was moreover relatively weak. The reason for this was probably that the factor O2 antibody concentration used was too low. Problems in the preparation of high titre factor O2 antiserum using *S. paratyphi A* bacteria as immunogen have often been observed. However the PM BSA antigen gave high titre antisera.

The specificity of the COA method was high (Tables 2 and 3). This is a consequence of the high

specificity of the sera raised against the synthetic disaccharide-protein conjugates, as demonstrated previously (4, 11, 18, 26, 27). However two of 144 *Salmonella* serogroup C2 strains examined reacted with the anti AM BSA sensitized staphylococci (Tables 2 and 3). The reason for this cross-reactivity is unclear. The antiserum is specific for the abequose 1-3 mannose disaccharide (representing O-antigen 4 determinant) whereas the serogroup C2 strains have an abequose 1-3 rhamnose disaccharide (probably representing O-antigen 8 determinant) in their O polysaccharide chain (15, 17). This structural difference should be sufficient not to allow an O8 antigen AM BSA antibody interaction.

The COA method required rather small quantities of PM BSA, AM BSA and TM BSA antibodies. The final dilution in the reagent was 1/1000. In SSA, O factor antisera are often used in dilutions ranging from 1/5 to 1/50. It is evident that the use of COA can result in a substantial saving of antiserum.

For a positive COA reaction, approximately 10^8 bacteria had to be mixed with the reagent. Such a concentration of bacteria is readily found in colony material. When the COA method was used with soluble O-antigens in the form of the micellar aggregate found in water soluble phenol-water extracted lipopolysaccharides, approximately 0.05 µg LPS gave a positive reaction. This amount is equivalent to approximately 10^7 bacteria. It must be stressed however that when using soluble O-antigen, the COA reaction is more difficult to register than when using whole bacteria. We therefore consider it unlikely that COA could be used for detection of soluble O-antigens in e.g. faecal samples.

As expected, indirect immunofluorescence (IFL) was much more sensitive than COA for the

detection of *Salmonella* bacteria (Table 5). When 10^5 bacteria were placed on the slide, at least 10 bacteria/50 visual fields could be seen. This implies that the sensitivity of IFL is higher and that, dependent on the criteria established, lower concentrations of bacteria can be detected. The higher sensitivity of IFL as compared to COA must be weighed against the fact that COA can be performed more rapidly and does not require any sophisticated equipment.

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CHLAMYDIA PSITTACI INFECTION IN DANISH CATTLE

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Rønsholt, L. *Chlamydia psittaci* infection in Danish cattle. Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B, 86: 291-297, 1978

Intestinal tract infection by *Chlamydia psittaci* was demonstrated in one cattle herd by isolation from faecal specimens, using embryonated eggs. Such infections were observed in all animals younger than 12 months, in 60% of the heifers and in some of the adult cows. The presence of infection correlated $\chi^2 = 11.5(1)$ with the serum titre of complement fixation antibodies against chlamydial antigens. Young calves, which were spontaneously infected with *Chlamydia* postnatally developed mild and moderate interstitial pneumonitis. The results of histological sections and isolation of the agent from these specimens indicated *Chlamydia* to be the cause of these conditions. The strain isolated (ROS DK/KVL-6/BJ) was identified as *C. psittaci*. The morphology of the organism and its pathogenicity in ground-pigs were studied. In embryonated eggs, a dose response curve was demonstrated for the ROS strain, which differed in that respect from another member of this species tested, viz. ERA (59-795).

Key words: *Chlamydia psittaci*, intestinal tract infection, pathogenicity, cattle, isolation, serology

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Chlamydia is an obligatory intracellular parasite belonging to the order Chlamydiales (28). The agents are divided into two subspecies, viz. *Chlamydia trachomatis* and *Chlamydia psittaci* (18). In man, the former may cause trachoma, inclusion conjunctivitis, lymphogranuloma venereum and other genital tract infections (5). Although *C. psittaci* is responsible for the zoonoses of ornithosis, this species mainly causes infections in animals. A great number of animal species may be infected, resulting in different types of infection (25). In cattle, *Chlamydia* may cause enzootic bovine abortion (EBA), seminal vesiculitis (SVS), sporadic bovine encephalomyelitis (SBE), polyarthritis, pneumonia and persistent intestinal infection (22, 23, 25).

Chlamydia possess a common group-specific antigen of lipopolysaccharide character. Which is active in the complement fixation test (CFT) (3). *C. trachomatis* may be subdivided into 15 serotypes

(30), whereas only two distinct types have been identified for *C. psittaci*. Serotype 2 is connected with SBE and polyarthritis in calves, while the agents of the remaining recognized diseases in cattle have been associated with type 1 (24). However, future investigations will probably remark more serotypes within *C. psittaci*.

Zoonotic infections caused by *C. psittaci* have been reported in Denmark (34), as has also the isolation of these agents from imported pettiatores and Danish pigeons (9, 21). Except for suspected sporadic cases of chlamydial-induced bovine abortions (22), no connection between disease and chlamydial infection has been reported in Danish cattle, though up to 19% of serum specimens from these adult animals contain complement fixation (CF) antibodies to *Chlamydia*. The percentage of positive sera increased proportionally when younger animals were included in the test (23).

Since the first isolation of *Chlamydia* from persistent intestinal infection in calves by York &

Baker in the U.S.A. in 1951 (36) similar findings in both calves and cattle have been reported from several other countries (25).

The intention of the present investigation was to study whether Danish cattle were subject to intestinal infection by *Chlamydia* to examine their distribution within one herd and, if possible, to connect such infections with clinical and pathological findings.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Animals. Seventeen animals of different ages (Table 1) were selected at random from a milking-herd (Røstrup Jutland) consisting of 103 heifers and cows, including 11% of animals with CF antibodies to *Chlamydia* (23). In addition, included in the investigation were two 10-day-old conventionally reared Jersey twin-calves (E 1 & 2) which had been transferred to the herd. Neither the dam nor these calves had CF antibodies to *Chlamydia*.

Isolation and identification of *Chlamydia* Before transfer of the two twin-calves, 5 g faeces was collected from the rectum for isolation purposes. Three weeks later a similar sample was collected from all 19 animals, after which the transferred twins were sacrificed and autopsied. Five g lung tissue from the left and right apical pulmonary lobe and 5 g of the ileum wall were carefully washed in phosphate buffered saline (PBS pH 7.2), and tested. The samples were triturated under aseptic precautions and treated according to the procedure described by Page *et al.* (20). The final supernatant of a triple centrifugation was inoculated as a single dose of 0.2 ml into the yolk-sac of five 7-day-old embryonated eggs. The yolk-sacs of two eggs were harvested 7 days post infection (p.i.) and passed on for two further passages. The remaining eggs in each passage were followed for up to 19 days p.i. unless death occurred earlier.

The presence of *Chlamydia* was indicated by impression smears from yolk-sac specimens, stained according to Gimenez (10) which showed typical detached red elementary bodies of uniform size, while CF antigen (Ag) afforded the proof (see below). Isolates were checked for mycoplasmas (31) and contamination by bacteria, using 5% blood-agar plates incubated aerobically and in pyrogallol bags. Embryonated eggs inoculated with PBS and yolk-sac material from non-infected eggs were used as controls.

Complement fixation tests. Aether-extracted and acetone-precipitated group-specific Ag (35), prepared from yolk sacs of embryonated eggs which died 7–10 days p.i. in the fourth passage, was tested in CFT against a known positive serum (B 577/type 1 kindly provided by Professor J. Stor, Colorado State university). Furthermore, Ag from the corresponding *C. psittaci* strain (ERA 59-795) isolated from an American outbreak of epizootic bovine abortion (27), and an aether-extracted *C. trachomatis* CF Ag (kindly provided by Dr C. H. Nordhøst, Statens Serum Institut, Copenhagen) of a strain (TRIC E/DK/SS-1/ON) isolated from a case of

inclusion conjunctivitis in a Danish child (16), were included in serological cross-reaction tests.

The test was performed according to the procedure described previously (23). More than 75% complement fixation by the test Ag-Ab complex was considered to be positive.

Purification of *Chlamydia*. Infected yolk-sacs were homogenized, trypsinized and submitted to differential centrifugation combined with the addition of Cetr[®] (Sigma, gr III E 5384) (19). Finally the sediment was suspended in 0.5 ml PBS (pH 7.0) with an admixture of 0.2 M sucrose per gram yolk-sac.

Growth in cell culture. Nearly confluent monolayers of HeLa cells in Leighton-tubes were incubated for 3 h at 37°C during frequent agitation with 0.6 ml partly purified agents with a titre of 3×10^4 chicken embryo 50% lethal doses (CELD₅₀). Control-tubes were treated in the same way with partly purified yolk-sac of non-infected eggs. The cultures were examined for formation of inclusions by staining according to Gimenez (10) and Giemsa (13), and for glucogen-containing inclusions according to Gordon & Quan (12) 24 h, 44 h, 68 h and 92 h p.i.

Hyperimmune serum. Rabbits were immunized with 0.5 ml partly purified agents, corresponding to 1×10^6 – 8×10^6 CELD₅₀, emulsified in incomplete Freund's adjuvant by simultaneous multiple intracutaneous inoculations, followed by intramuscular inoculation of the agent without adjuvant 3 weeks later. Optimal immune response was obtained 4 weeks after the first immunization (22).

Histological examination. Formalin-fixed sections of lung and ileum tissue were stained with haematoxylin-eosin. Cryostat sections of ileum were stained according to Gimenez (10).

Dose-response curve in embryonated eggs. The growth in 7-day-old embryonated eggs of a representative chlamydial strain (ROS DK/KVL 6/B3) isolated from faeces of a heifer without clinical symptoms from the herd in question (Table 1 B 3), was compared with the ERA strain by estimating average day of death p.i. (ADD) related to a tenfold dilution of agents (11). Twenty eggs were inoculated with 0.2 ml of each of the dilutions and candled at the same time once a day.

Although there might have been a possibility of different *Chlamydia* strains being mixed when handled through many subpassages over a long period, the fact that the isolated strains preserved their characteristics during such proceedings seemed to indicate that cross contamination was avoided by the precautions taken.

Pathogenicity on guinea pigs. Two adult guinea-pigs were inoculated intraperitoneally with 0.2 ml (1×10^5 CELD₅₀) of the partly purified ROS strain. Control animals consisted of two guinea pigs from the same flock inoculated with the carrier-substance for the agent.

Sulphonamide sensitivity. To a partly purified suspension of the ROS strain with a titre of 1×10^4 CELD₅₀, was added 1 mg of sulphadiazine per 0.2 ml. The suspension was left on the bench for half-an-hour before being titrated in embryonated eggs. Similar titrations of the *Chlamydia* suspension were also performed without sulphonamide admixture.

Ultrastructural investigation. Segments of yolk-membrane from embryonated eggs inoculated with the E1 and R05 strains were fixed in 2.5% glutaraldehyde for 2 h, followed by 1% osmium tetroxide overnight at 4°C. The sections were embedded in Vestopal W[®] cut on a LKB ultratome I and examined in a JEOL JEM 100 B electron microscope.

RESULTS

Isolation studies. Agents were isolated from faeces of cattle from the herd in question. More shedders were found among young animals than among older ones (Table 1). As estimated by ADD of inoculated embryonated eggs, the degree of infection was inversely proportional to age and occurred most frequently in the youngest calves. The two 10-day-old calves (E 1 & 2, Table 1) developed intestinal infection with *Chlamydia* during their three-week stay in the herd.

Complement fixation tests. Stationary CF titres were observed even over longer periods in most of the animals (Table 1). Only one 6-month-old calf (D 3) demonstrated a significant increase in titre from

1:10 to 1:40. Discrepancy existed between the immunological findings and the intestinal isolation results in some cases, such as seropositive animals which apparently did not house the agent (A2, B1), or seronegative animals from which *Chlamydia* could be isolated (E1 & 2). On the other hand, most CF positive animals, except for the one-month-old calves, were found among the young animals which all harboured the agent. Correlation existed between the CF titre and the severity of intestinal infection, especially when the findings in calves E 1 and E 2 were excluded ($r = 0.511$).

The introduced *ovis-capra*. The animals (E 1 & 2, Table 1) had penicilline diarrhoea during the period of observation. At the end of this period the clinical findings were normal, apart from a reduced nutritional status. The only change seen at autopsy was a hyperplastic thickening of the ileum wall. Histology revealed hyperplastic ileitis with reticulo-endothelial hyperplasia of Peyer's patches, focally dilated lacteals and submucosal lymph vessels and infiltration with eosinophiles, neutrophiles, plasma cells and proliferation of macrophages (Fig. 1). Sections of the apical lobes from the lungs of one

TABLE 1. Distribution of Faecal *Chlamydia* Isolates in Different Age Groups of One Cattle Herd. Serum Titres against *Chlamydia* in Complement Fixation Test (CFT) are given relative to the Day of Faecal Sampling (Day 0)

| | Isolate ^a | Mean ADD | Positive % | Reciprocal values of serum dilutions positive against <i>Chlamydia</i> | | | | |
|--------------------------------|----------------------|-------------|---------------|---|-----|-----|----|----------|
| | | | | -64 | -32 | -21 | 0 | +35 days |
| Cows | A1 - | | | | | | | |
| | 2 - | | | 20 | 20 | | 20 | 5 |
| | 3 - | | | | | | | 20 |
| | 4 - | | 0 | 10 | 10 | | 10 | 5 |
| Heifers | B1 - | | | | | | 40 | 10 |
| | 2 + | | | | | | 20 | 40 |
| | 3 + | | | | | | 10 | 20 |
| | 4 - | | | | | | | 5 |
| Calves aged about 12 months | 5 + | 20 | 60 | 10 | 20 | | | |
| | C1 ++ | | | | | | 20 | 40 |
| | 2 + | | | | | | 40 | 40 |
| | 3 ++ | | | | | | 16 | 16 |
| Calves aged about 6 months | 4 + | 18 | 100 | | | | 20 | 100 |
| | D1 - | | | | | | 20 | |
| | 2 +++ | | | | | | 40 | 40 |
| | 3 + | | | | | | 20 | 20 |
| Calves aged 1 month | 4 +++ | 15 | 100 | | | | 10 | 40 |
| | E1 +++ | | | | | | 40 | 80 |
| | 2 ++ | 9 | 100 | | | | | |

^a Isolates from faeces graded according to 'Average Day of Death' (ADD) post infection in embryonated eggs. ADD inversely proportional to titre of agent: +++ = ADD ≤ 14; ++ = ADD 15-18 incl; + = ADD ≥ 19 = no lethal effect. Three experiments were undertaken.

^b -, not tested; +, positive in CFT.

^c Transferred to calves, which initially when 10 days old, did not excrete *Chlamydia*.

Baker in the U.S.A. In 1951 (36) similar findings in both calves and cattle have been reported from several other countries (25).

The intention of the present investigation was to study whether Danish cattle were subject to intestinal infection by *Chlamydia* to examine their distribution within one herd and, if possible, to connect such infections with clinical and pathological findings.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Animals. Seventeen animals of different ages (Table 1) were selected at random from a milking herd (Rostrup Jutland) consisting of 103 heifers and cows, including 11% of animals with CF antibodies to *Chlamydia* (23). In addition, included in the investigation were two 10-day-old, conventionally reared Jersey twin-calves (E 1 & 2) which had been transferred to the herd. Neither the dam nor these calves had CF antibodies to *Chlamydia*.

Isolation and identification of *Chlamydia*. Before transfer of the two twin-calves, 5 g faeces was collected from the rectum for isolation purposes. Three weeks later a similar sample was collected from all 19 animals, after which the transferred twins were sacrificed and autopsied. Five g lung tissue from the left and right apical pulmonary lobe and 5 g of the ileum wall were carefully washed in phosphate buffered saline (PBS, pH 7.2), and tested. The samples were triturated under aseptic precautions and treated according to the procedure described by Page *et al.* (20). The final supernatant of a triple centrifugation was inoculated as a single dose of 0.2 ml into the yolk-sac of five 7-day-old embryonated eggs. The yolk-sacs of two eggs were harvested 7 days post infection (p.i.) and passed on for two further passages. The remaining eggs in each passage were followed for up to 19 days p.i. unless death occurred earlier.

The presence of *Chlamydia* was indicated by impression smears from yolk-sac specimens, stained according to Gimenez (10) which showed typical detached red elementary bodies of uniform size, while CF antigen (Ag) afforded the proof (see below). Isolates were checked for mycoplasma (31) and contamination by bacteria, using 5% blood agar plates incubated aerobically and in pyrazolol bags. Embryonated eggs inoculated with PBS and yolk-sac material from non infected eggs were used as controls.

Complement fixation tests. Aether-extracted and acetone-precipitated group-specific Ag (35) prepared from yolk-sacs of embryonated eggs which died 7-10 days p.i. in the fourth passage, was tested in CFT against a known positive serum (B 577/type 1 kindly provided by Professor J. Storz, Colorado State University). Furthermore, Ag from the corresponding *C. psittaci* strain (EBA 59 795), isolated from an American outbreak of epizootic bovine abortion (27), and an aether-extracted *C. trachomatis* CF Ag (kindly provided by Dr C. W. Nordboost, Statens Serum Institut, Copenhagen) of a strain (TRIC E/DK/SS-1/ON) isolated from a case of

inclusion conjunctivitis in a Danish child (16), were included in serological cross-reaction tests.

The test was performed according to the procedure described previously (23). More than 75% complement fixation by the test Ag-Ab complex was considered to be positive.

Purification of *Chlamydia*. Infected yolk-sacs were homogenized, trypsinized and submitted to differential centrifugation combined with the addition of Celite® (Sigma, gr III D 5384) (19). Finally the sediment was suspended in 0.5 ml PBS (pH 7.0) with an admixture of 0.2 M sucrose per gram yolk-sac.

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TABLE 2. Serological Cross-Reaction in Complement Fixation Test between Group-Antigen Extracted from One *Chlamydia trachomatis* and Two Different *Chlamydia psittaci* Serotypes and Homologous Rabbit Antisera

| Antigen | Homologous antiserum | | |
|-------------------|----------------------|-----|-----|
| | TRIC | EBA | ROS |
| TRIC/E/DK/SS-1/ON | 320 | 320 | 640 |
| EBA 59-795 | 320 | 320 | 640 |
| ROS DK/KVL-6/B3 | 160 | 160 | 320 |
| Control Ag | — | — | — |

organs examined yielded no bacteria after inoculation on blood-agar plates. Examination of related impression smears stained according to Gimenez, showed no chlamydial elementary bodies. However, isolation trials in eggs were positive already in the first passage, while the same organs from control animals were negative for three successive subpassages. The control animals were clinically healthy and no pathological changes in the organs examined could be demonstrated.

Development of agent in embryonated eggs. Differentiation between the ROS and EBA strains was demonstrated by the growth characteristics in eggs. The titration endpoints of the ROS strain were obtained in shorter time, normally within 8 days p.i., thus resulting in a steeper slope with a coefficient of -2.5 as compared to -1.0 of that of the EBA strain (Fig. 3). This characteristic regression coefficient of the dose-response curve was stable during 19 egg-passages and after a 126-day passage in a cow. The optimal harvest of the two strains differed quantitatively since the EBA strain constantly produced up to ten times more infectious agents than the ROS strain.

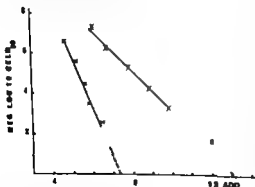


Fig. 3. Dose-response curves for the *Chlamydia* strains: ROS DK/KVL-6/B3 (R) and EBA 59-795 (E), estimated by end-titration and average day of death (ADD) in embryonated eggs.

DISCUSSION

Chlamydia may be considered to be an ubiquitous agent which causes persistent intestinal infection in Danish cattle. As reported previously (23), a relatively high percentage of cattle have CF antibodies to *Chlamydia*. As demonstrated in the present study *C. psittaci* may frequently be isolated from faecal specimens from a clinically normal herd with a representative percentage of seropositive animals.

Studies of the ADD (11) of embryonated eggs inoculated with *Chlamydia* isolated from faeces of the cattle studied, gave reproducible results. Infection occurred early in life. Further more the greatest dissemination of the organism can be seen among the younger animals, as was anticipated from an investigation of chlamydial CF antibodies in the herd, which demonstrated that the highest frequency of seropositive animals was among the 5-12 month-old calves (23). According to the results of isolation (Table 1), the intensity of infection decreased and the infection vanished with increasing age. This agrees well with the observation that *Chlamydia* is isolated only rarely from faeces of apparently healthy cattle more than 2 years of age. (25).

Though an overall correlation between chlamydial intestinal infection and the level of specific CF antibodies was claimed in the present study a few animals showed deviation. Thus very young calves (E 1 & 2, Table 1) did not develop CF antibodies in spite of severe intestinal *Chlamydia* infection. This does not seem to be explained by local restriction of the organisms to the epithelium (29). Such a lack of Ab development has been reported previously in *Chlamydia*-infected calves during their first 6-8 weeks of life (4, 26, 32). In this period Ig A of locally accumulated plasma cells may play an important part, since these cells are increased in number and seem to be the only type of phagocytosing cell which destroys the organisms (4). On the other hand, stationary CF titres without demonstrable intestinal infection have been found in older animals (20); a similar observation was made in the present study. This discrepancy might express a persistent infection limited to the phagocytosing cells outside the epithelium. As stated previously by other authors (1, 15), the occurrence of CF antibodies against *Chlamydia* in the present investigation had little, if any importance in combating the infection, since the antibodies were present long time before and along with high level of demonstrable infection. The role of cell-mediated immune-response in this respect is still unsolved, but probably it influences the infection to a greater extent (7, 14).



Fig 1 Hyperplastically changed ileum from a calf with *Chlamydia* infection. The section shows dilation of lacteals, inflammatory cell accumulation in lamina propria and reticulo-endothelial hyperplasia of Peyer's patches. Haematoxylin-eosin, $\times 100$

calf (E 1) showed disseminated interstitial pneumonia with proliferation of alveolar macrophages and slight neutrophil infiltration (Fig. 2).

Inoculation of tissue specimens and regional lymph nodes on blood agar plates showed a flora consisting of Gram-negative rods, streptococci and *Streptomyces* spp. Lung tissue did not cause any changes in primary calf-kidney monolayer for three successive subpassages, maintained for 7 days each.

Chlamydia was isolated from the ileum wall of both calves (E 1 & 2) in a number which was one log unit (CELD₅₀) greater than from faeces, estimated by the difference in ADD. Furthermore, the agent was demonstrated in the lung tissue of one calf (E 1) in a lower concentration equivalent to 14 ADD in the second egg-passage. In cryostat sections of ileum stained according to Gimenez, focally distributed inclusions were demonstrated in about 1-2% of the epithelial cells. These were most frequently

located on the tips of the villi but a few were also seen in the crypts of Lieberkühn, and in cells belonging to lamina propria.

Identification of chlamydial isolates. The identity of antigen preparation from four isolates (B2, B3, B5 & E2) passaged four times in embryonated eggs, was confirmed in CFT against the known positive control sera. Cross-reaction in CFT was demonstrated (Table 2) between the *C. trachomatis* strain (TRIC E), the *EBA* strain and the isolated *ROS* strain against homologous convalescent sera. No unspecific reaction against non-infected embryonated egg Ag was observed.

Glucogen-containing inclusions were not observed during the life cycle of the agents in cell culture.

Sulphadiazine had no inhibitory effect on growth of the *ROS* strain in embryonated eggs. The difference between test and control titration was 10^{0.1} CELD₅₀.

Morphological studies. Electron micrographs showing the different development bodies of the *ROS* strain grown in yolk-sac membrane were identical to those of the *EBA* strain.

Inoculation of guinea pigs. Infection by the *ROS* strain resulted in ruffled coat, anorexia and lethargy 4-5 days p.i. Fibrinous peritonitis, disseminated liver necrosis and splenomegaly were found. The



Fig 2 Section from apical lobe of one calf (E 1) with *Chlamydia* infection, showing disseminated interstitial pneumonia dominated by proliferation of alveolar macrophages. Haematoxylin-eosin, $\times 250$

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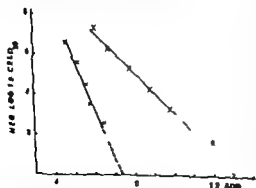


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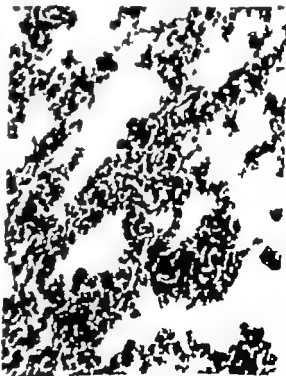


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As chlamydial infections are ubiquitous in cattle, and no species-specific antibodies have been detected in convalescent sera, the CF test generally cannot be employed as a diagnostic tool, even in severe infections. The clinical picture of the two youngest spontaneously infected calves (E 1 & 2) was not different from that of other calves of the same age in the herd. Benign pneumonia, diagnosed by clinical observations, was often found in these calves. However in this respect the herd studied did not differ from what is normally observed in cattle herds in general. *Chlamydia* infection may therefore contribute to disease in Danish calves to a greater extent than hitherto recognized. The ileum seemed to be an important target organ for *Chlamydia*. The histological findings in sections of this organ from animals in the present study resembled those found in chronic ileal infections of calves experimentally infected with the more virulent polyarthritidis strain (6). The latter experiment demonstrated further that a chlamydial infection of the mucosal epithelial cells was able to penetrate to the lymph vessels via macrophages (4, 6). Similar generalization of the ROS strain might also take place in the present investigation. However whether the pulmonary lesions were part of a systemic infection, or were caused by inhalation of *Chlamydia* could not be established. However interstitial pneumonia has been reported previously to follow oral infection with a chlamydial strain known to cause intestinal infection (26).

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Three-day-old chicks and 11-12 day embryonated eggs were inoculated with 100 BMLD₅₀ (baby mouse lethal dose) of Runde virus. Chicks were infected subcutaneously and eggs in the allantoic or amniotic cavities, in the yolk sac, or on the chorioallantoic membrane. »Runde« virus produced viraemia and antibody responses in 3-day-old chicks. The virus multiplied only in the amniotic cavity of the embryonated eggs and was detected in the brains of the embryos from day 5-9 p.i. Out of five eggs left to hatch, two hatched on time, while in three unhatched eggs the chicks were alive but extremely weak. Virus was detected in the brains of all five chicks, and high antibody titres were found in the two which hatched. These two chicks had »epilepsy-like« attacks. The results suggested that one passage in chicks or eggs reduced the mouse pathogenicity of »Runde« virus. No antigenic difference between chick and mouse-passaged virus could be demonstrated by gel precipitation.

Key words: »Corona-like«, bird arbovirus, embryonic infection, CNS disease.

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»Runde« virus was isolated from unengorged *Ixodes uriae* ticks collected in the seabird colonies at Runde, Norway in 1973 (3, 4). Two strains were isolated which showed a morphology resembling corona virus, and antibodies were demonstrated in host-birds for *I. uriae*. The ecological circumstances pointed to a previously unrecognized arbovirus circulating between seabirds and ticks. Subsequently Finnish workers found a comparable virus in *I. uriae* ticks collected at Røst in the Lofoten Islands, Norway (2).

The ability of Runde virus to produce persistent infections in cell cultures and mice has already been established and studied to some extent (6). However, since the principal vertebrate hosts for »Runde« virus seem to be birds, it was considered reasonable to study the ability of »Runde« virus to infect the available *in vivo* avian experimental models, viz. chickens and embryonated fowl eggs.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The isolation history of virus strain Ra E81 has been given in detail elsewhere (4). The virus was used after two passages in newborn mouse brains, followed by four passages in BHK 21/c13 cells as reported previously (4). The infected medium from the 4th passage was used as virus inoculum, and media from uninfected BHK 21/c13 cultures were used as control. Virus doses were calculated by the formula of Reed & Muench (1) based on titrations in newborn mice, and were recorded as BMLD₅₀ (baby mouse lethal dose).

For serological identification of virus and antibody determinations, haemagglutination-inhibition test (HAIs) and immunoelectrophoresis (IEOP) were used, as described previously (4, 5).

RESULTS

Experiment 1

Ten 3-day-old chickens were inoculated with 100 BMLD₅₀ subcutaneously. Blood specimens for detection of viraemia or anamnestic antibody

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»Runde« virus was isolated from unemerged *Ixodes ricinus* ticks collected in the seabird colonies at Runde, Norway in 1973 (3, 4). Two strains were isolated which showed a morphology resembling corona virus, and antibodies were demonstrated in coracoon virus, and antibodies were demonstrated in host-birds for / *arise*. The ecological circumstances pointed to a previously unrecognized arbovirus circulating between seabirds and ticks. Subsequently Finnish workers found a comparable virus in / *arise* ticks collected at Røst in the Lofoten Islands, Norway (2).

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MATERIALS AND METHODS

The isolation history of virus strain Rik E81 has been given in detail elsewhere (4). The virus was used after two passages in new born mouse brains, followed by four passages in BHK 21/c13 cells as reported previously (4). The infected medium from the 4th passage was used as virus inoculum, and media from uninfected BHK 21/c13 cultures were used as control. Virus doses were calculated by the formula of Reed & Muench (1) based on titrations in newborn mice, and were recorded as BMLD₅₀ (baby mouse lethal dose).

For serological identification of virus and antibody determinations, haemagglutination-inhibition test (HAD) and immunoelectrophoresis (IEOP) were used, as described previously (4, 5).

RESULTS

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Ten 3-day-old chickens were inoculated with 100 BMLD₅₀ subcutaneously. Blood specimens for detection of viraemia or anamnestic antibody

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MATERIALS AND METHODS

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RESULTS

Experiment 1

Ten 3-day-old chickens were inoculated with 100 BMLD₅₀ subcutaneously. Blood specimens for detection of viraemia or anaemic antibody

TABLE 1 *Experimental Infection of Chickens with 100 BMLD₅₀ of »Runde« Virus Subcutaneously*

| Chicken no | 2 | 3 | 5 | 10 | 20 |
|------------|--------------------------|---------------------------|----|-----------------|-----|
| 1 | 2.8 ^a | ND ^b | ND | 40 ^c | 320 |
| 2 | — | — | — | 10 | 80 |
| 3 | Dead virus+ ^d | | | | |
| 4 | 2.6 | ND | ND | 20 | 320 |
| 5 | — | 3.5 | ND | 20 | 640 |
| 6 | 2.6 | Dead, virus+ ^e | | | |
| 7 | — | 2.8 | ND | 20 | 320 |
| 8 | 3.1 | ND | ND | 40 | 320 |
| 9 | — | — | — | 20 | 160 |
| 10 | — | — | — | 10 | 80 |

^a Viraemia in \log_{10} BMLD₅₀/0.02 ml.,— less than 1.5 logs.

^b Not done

^c Antibody titre in HAI (haemagglutination inhibition)

^d Virus detected in blood and in brain; not titrated.

^e Virus detected in blood only

response were taken on days 2 3 5 10 and 20 post inoculation (p.i.).

Viraemia ($\geq 1.5 \log_{10}$ BMLD₅₀) was detected in seven chickens, and increases in antibody were found in all survivors. The results are shown in Table 1.

One of the chickens was found dead on day 2 p.i. and another died during bleeding on day 3. In the former virus was detected in both blood and brain in the latter in the blood only. The last eight chickens were killed on day 25 p.i. No virus was detected in a pooled sample from the brains or in pooled blood from day 10 p.i.

Experiment 2

We wanted to find out whether »Runde« virus multiplied in embryonated eggs.

Twenty 12-day-old eggs were inoculated with 100 BMLD₅₀ in the allantoic, amniotic or yolk sac cavities and on the chorio-allantoic membrane. Four eggs were given virus and one control medium per inoculation route. Eggs were harvested for virus determination on days 2 3 4 and 5 p.i.

Virus was detected in the amniotic fluid only on all days of sampling. Quantification of virus was impossible by baby mouse brain inoculation. The mice showed paralysis and paresis to varying extents, the symptoms starting on day 8–9 but all survived until day 14 when they were killed. »Runde« virus was detected readily in the brain suspensions from these mice by HAI and IEOP.

Experiment 3

Thirty 11-day-old embryonated eggs were inoculated with 100 BMLD₅₀ in the amniotic sac. Five eggs were harvested to test the embryos for virus on days 5 to 9 p.i. while the last five were left for hatching.

The brains of the embryos were pooled according to day of harvest. Suspensions were made by known methods (4) and were inoculated intracerebrally into newborn mice, using three litters of eight mice per suspension.

Again, the mice showed paresis and paralysis to varying extents but survived until they were killed on day 14 p.i. The effects were the same, irrespective of the age of the chick embryos. »Runde« virus was identified readily by HAI and IEOP in the inoculated mouse brains, and also directly in the chicken brain suspensions.

Two of the remaining five eggs hatched on time. The last three did not show any signs of hatching during a subsequent observation of eight hours, after which they were opened. The chickens were still alive but extremely weak, and did not react at all to handling. They were killed at once by exsanguination.

The two survivors were handled and fed in the same way as other chickens kept at the Department of Laboratory Animals, National Institute of Public Health. They would feed normally and also otherwise seem healthy for varying periods (minutes to hours) but suddenly without any notice would collapse in tonic-clonic spasms. During these episodes, they did not seem to be conscious of, or at least did not react to handling and otherwise frightening disturbances in the environment. The attacks would last for approximately 1–3 minutes and stop just as suddenly as they had started. The chickens often started feeding again the moment they were back on their feet. After showing the same symptoms for eight days, they were killed by exsanguination.

The brains of these five chickens were treated individually and suspensions were inoculated intracerebrally into newborn mouse litters and also on BHK 21/c13 cell cultures. Virus was detected and identified in all chicken brains but in none of the blood specimens. Virus was recovered in mice as well as in cell cultures, but could not be quantified by mouse LD₅₀ or cell CPE.

In the sera of the two surviving chickens, high antibody titres to »Runde« virus (640–1280) were demonstrated by HAI.

Due to the reduced pathogenicity for baby mice of virus isolated from eggs and chickens, we tried to detect antigenic differences between mouse-passaged and chicken-passaged virus, employing the Ouchter

key modification CHII (closed hexagon immunodiffusion) as reported previously (4, 7). Reactions of identity were found between mouse-passaged and chicken-passaged virus by this technique.

DISCUSSION

These experiments have shown that Runder virus can infect chickens and embryonated eggs, and that the virus persisted in the embryo during the last 10 days of development and in the brains of the chickens after hatching. It has also been shown that Runder virus infection of embryonated eggs may affect the viability and hatching ability and probably produces CNS disease in the chickens. Host modification of virus pathogenicity was suggested by the prolonged disease produced by one serial passage of an originally mouse-lethal virus strain.

The author is grateful to Einar Brænne and Halvors Segstad for expert technical assistance.

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TABLE 1 *Experimental Infection of Chickens with 100 BMLD₅₀ of »Runde« Virus Subcutaneously*

| Chicken no | 2 | 3 | 5 | 10 | 20 |
|------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|----|-----------------|-----|
| 1 | 2.8 | ND ^b | ND | 40 ^c | 320 |
| 2 | — | — | — | 10 | 80 |
| 3 | Dead, virus+ ^d | | | | |
| 4 | 2.6 | ND | ND | 20 | 320 |
| 5 | — | 3.5 | ND | 20 | 640 |
| 6 | 2.6 | Dead, virus+ ^d | | | |
| 7 | — | 2.8 | ND | 20 | 320 |
| 8 | 3.1 | ND | ND | 40 | 320 |
| 9 | — | — | — | 20 | 160 |
| 10 | — | — | — | 10 | 80 |

Viraemia in logs₁₀ BMLD₅₀/0.02 ml.— less than 1.5 logs.

^a Not done

^b Antibody titre in HAI (haemagglutination inhibition).

^c Virus detected in blood and in brain, not titrated

^d Virus detected in blood only

response were taken on days 2 3 5 10 and 20 post-inoculation (p.i.).

Viraemia (≥ 1.5 logs₁₀ BMLD₅₀) was detected in seven chickens, and increases in antibody were found in all survivors. The results are shown in Table 1.

One of the chickens was found dead on day 2 p.i. and another died during bleeding on day 3. In the former virus was detected in both blood and brain, in the latter in the blood only. The last eight chickens were killed on day 25 p.i. No virus was detected in a pooled sample from the brains or in pooled blood from day 10 p.i.

Experiment 2

We wanted to find out whether »Runde« virus multiplied in embryonated eggs.

Twenty 12-day-old eggs were inoculated with 100 BMLD₅₀ in the allantoic, amniotic or yolk sac cavities and on the chorio-allantoic membrane. Four eggs were given virus and one control medium per inoculation route. Eggs were harvested for virus determination on days 2, 3, 4 and 5 p.i.

Virus was detected in the amniotic fluid only on all days of sampling. Quantification of virus was impossible by baby mouse brain inoculation. The mice showed paralysis and paresis to varying extents, the symptoms starting on day 8–9 but all survived until day 14 when they were killed. »Runde« virus was detected readily in the brain suspensions from these mice by HAI and IEOP.

Experiment 3

Thirty 11-day-old embryonated eggs were inoculated with 100 BMLD₅₀ in the amniotic sac. Five eggs were harvested to test the embryos for virus on days 5 to 9 p.i. while the last five were left for hatching.

The brains of the embryos were pooled according to day of harvest. Suspensions were made by known methods (4) and were inoculated intracerebrally into newborn mice, using three litters of eight mice per suspension.

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EFFECT OF HUMAN LEUKOCYTE INTERFERON ON THE PERMEABILITY OF THE CYTOPLASMA MEMBRANE OF CULTURED CELLS

MIKLOS DEGRÉ

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Degré, M. Effect of human leukocyte interferon on the permeability of the cytoplasmic membrane of cultured cells. Acta path. microbiol. scand. Sect. B, 86: 303-307 1978

The effect of human leukocyte interferon on the cytoplasmic membrane of cultured homologous cells has been investigated. U-aminocells were labelled with (1-¹⁴C) alpha-aminoisobutyric acid (AIB), a low-molecular-weight non-metabolizable amino acid. Following uptake, the AIB is released spontaneously from the cells. Treatment of cells with interferon reduced the AIB release. This effect was dose-dependent, was neutralized by anti-interferon serum and was strongly reduced by trypsin treatment.

Key words: interferon, cytoplasmic membrane

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An effect on the cytoplasmic membrane is probably a crucially important part of the action of interferon on homologous cells. It has been reported by several groups of investigators that in some virus-cell systems interferon inhibits a late stage in virus production, assembly, maturation or release of virus particles (1, 2, 11, 15, 16). While the intracellular markers of e.g. murine leukaemia virus are produced normally, complete virus particles are released in reduced numbers from interferon-treated cells (11). It has been suggested that this might be a result of an interferon-induced alteration of cell membrane physiology.

To investigate the interferon effect on the stability of the cell membrane, we employed ³H labelled uridine as a low-molecular-weight cytoplasmic marker (10). Treatment of human U-aminocells with low concentrations of human leukocyte interferon reduced the spontaneous release of ³H uridine from the cells, thus supporting the theory that interferon treatment stabilizes the cell membrane. Since the publication of that report, an

improvement of this method has been described by Theissen & Mölly (17), using (1-¹⁴C) alpha-aminoisobutyric acid (AIB). This compound is a low-molecular-weight (mol. wt. 103) non-metabolizable amino acid, and is therefore a good cytoplasmic marker. It has been shown that the sensitivity of the assay for membrane stability is high.

In the present study we have investigated the effect of human interferon on the spontaneous release of AIB from cultured homologous cells.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cells

The U line of human amnion cells was originally received from Dr K. Casareff, Helsinki. The cells were grown in Eagle's minimal essential medium (MEM, GIBCO) with the addition of 5 per cent inactivated calf serum, NaHCO₃ and antibiotics. The cells were maintained in the same medium with 2 per cent calf serum.

Human embryonic lung cells (HEL) were prepared in this laboratory. They were grown in 50 per cent Eagle's MEM and 50 per cent medium 199 (GIBCO), with the addition of 10 per cent calf serum, NaHCO₃ and

antibiotics. The serum concentration was reduced to 5 and later to 2 per cent during maintenance. The HEL cells were in their 5th to 15th passage during the present study

Virus

Vesicular stomatitis virus (VSV), Indiana strain, was grown in L-F₁ mouse fibroblast cells. Samples were stored at -70° C and a fresh ampoule was used for each experiment. Infectivity titres were assayed by the infectivity endpoint micromethod in L-F₁ and U cells.

Interferon

Human leukocyte interferon preparations were kindly provided by Dr K Cantell, Helsinki. Both crude interferon and partially purified preparations (4) were employed. The results obtained with the different preparations were identical and therefore are not presented separately. Mock interferon preparations were also obtained from Dr K Cantell. Mock interferons were prepared in the same way as the leukocyte interferons, except for omission of the Sendai virus induction of the leukocytes.

Anti Interferon Serum

Rabbit anti-human globulin against leukocyte interferon was received from the Antiviral Substances Program National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases, Bethesda, Md

Assay of the Biological Effect of Interferon

Antiviral activity of interferon preparations was tested by the infectivity inhibition micromethod employing VSV and HEL cells. Details of the test are described elsewhere (8). Titres are expressed in International standard units related to the 69/19 standard

Interferon effect on cell growth was tested as described in detail elsewhere (9). Briefly 1 ml of medium containing interferon dilutions was added in freshly seeded U cells, 10⁵ cells per tube. At least five tubes were used for each dilution. Control tubes were seeded with medium without interferon. The cells were incubated stationary in 5 per cent CO₂ atmosphere at 37° C. After incubation for 3 days the monolayers were trypsinized and the cells were counted in a haemocytometer. Viability was more than 95 per cent, as determined by the trypan blue staining method

Interferon Effect on Release of AIB

(1-14C) alpha-aminobutyric acid (AIB) was purchased from The Radio-Chemical Centre, Amsterdam. Stock solutions made in Hanks BS were kept at -20° C. Tubes were seeded with 10⁵ U cells each in MEM. Three-day-old monolayers were incubated with AIB diluted in MEM to contain 1 μ Ci per ml. After incubation for 1 hour the cells were washed three times with fresh medium to remove any radioactivity not incorporated into the cells. Interferon diluted in MEM was then added, using 5-8 tubes for each dilution. MEM alone was added to the control tubes. After incubation at 37° C for various times, 0.1 ml of the supernatant was transferred

to a scintillation vial containing 10 ml Aerosol Samples were counted in a Packard liquid scintillator for 10 minutes. The activity in the control culture supernatant was considered as 100 per cent, and the interferon treated cultures were related to the controls.

In some experiments, the remaining medium was decanted and the cells were suspended in 0.9 ml fresh MEM and 0.1 ml of the non-ionic detergent Triton-X 100 at a final concentration of 0.25 per cent (v/v). The tubes were incubated for 15 minutes and agitated in a Vortex mixer. This treatment causes complete lysis of the cytoplasmic membrane of the cells, thus releasing the incorporated radioactivity into the medium (18). After lysis, 0.1 ml was transferred to a scintillation vial containing Aerosol and the radioactivity was determined as described above. The total radioactivity taken up by the cells was equal to the sum of released and cell-bound radioactivity

RESULTS

Spontaneous Release of AIB from Normal U Cells

Three-day-old monolayers of U cells were labelled with AIB as described in Materials and Methods. The amounts of extra-cellular and cell-bound radioactivity were determined after various periods of incubation. Results of a representative experiment are shown in Fig. 1. After uptake, some of the radioactivity was released spontaneously from the labelled cells into the medium. The total radioactivity i.e. the sum of extracellular and cellbound radioactivity was constant during the time of the experiment. The kinetics of spontaneous release were similar in several repeated experiments.

Interferon Effect on Spontaneous Release of AIB from Normal U Cells

200 units interferon per ml diluted in MEM were added to the cells immediately after removal of the radioactive AIB-containing medium. Control tubes were supplemented with MEM only. After incuba-

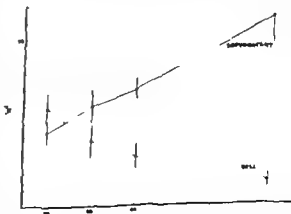


Fig. 1 Spontaneous release of AIB from U-aminon cells (vertical bars indicate standard deviation (SD))

tion for 15 30 45 and 90 minutes, 0.1 ml was removed from the supernatant and the radioactivity was determined (Fig. 2). The supernatant of the interferon treated cultures contained less radioactivity after incubation for 45 and 90 minutes than the supernatant of the control cultures.

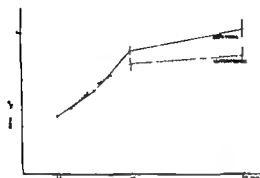


Fig. 2 Effect of human leukocyte interferon on the spontaneous release of AIB from U-937 cells. Vertical bars indicate standard deviation (SD).

The interferon effect on the AIB release was dose dependent (Table 1). A slight increase (105–115 per cent of the controls) was seen regularly after treatment with very low concentrations of interfe-

TABLE 1 Effect of Various Concentrations of Interferon on the Spontaneous Release of AIB from U Cells

| Interferon Units per ml | Counts per minute \pm SD | Percentage of control |
|-------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------|
| 0 | 801 \pm 41 | |
| 5 | 832 \pm 55 | 104 |
| 10 | 764 \pm 67 | 95 |
| 50 | 764 \pm 82 | 95 |
| 200 | 739 \pm 70 | 92 |
| 1000 | 674 \pm 54 | 84 |

AIB release was measured after incubation for 90 minutes.

ron. Higher concentrations of interferon (200 units per ml or more) reduced the extracellular radioactivity.

Specificity of the Suppressing Effect of Interferon

The specificity of the interferon effect was tested by exposing the interferon to treatment with physico-chemical factors known to have well-defined effects on the biological activities of interferon. Trypsin treatment is known to eliminate the antiviral effect, while heating at 56° C for 30 minutes has no major influence. In addition, specific antiserum is known to neutralize both the antiviral

TABLE 2 Specificity of Interferon Effect on the Cell Membrane Permeability

| | Antiviral titre | Number of cells $\times 10,000 \pm$ SD (% of controls) | Release of AIB % of total ^b radioactivity |
|--|-----------------|--|--|
| Experiment I | | | |
| Control cells | | 41 \pm 8.2 | 78 |
| Interferon | 1584 | 22 \pm 4.5 (56) | 58 |
| Interferon treated at 56° C for 30 min. | 1000 | 21 \pm 3.2 (51) | 53 |
| Interferon treated with trypsin | 125 | 37 \pm 9.9 (90) | 68 |
| Experiment II | | | |
| Control cells | | 21 \pm 3.3 | 38 |
| Interferon | 160 | 11 \pm 0.9 (52) | 29 |
| Mock interferon | <10 | 18 \pm 4.5 (85) | 39 |
| Interferon treated with anti-interferon globulin | <10 | 20 \pm 3.9 (95) | 39 |

^a Number of cells after incubation for 3 days with the test substance.

^b AIB release was measured after incubation for 90 minutes.

Interferon was incubated with anti-interferon globulin overnight.

antibiotics. The serum concentration was reduced to 5 and later to 2 per cent during maintenance. The HEL cells were in their 5th to 15th passage during the present study.

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Vesicular stomatitis virus (VSV) Indiana strain, was grown in L-F₁ mouse fibroblast cells. Samples were stored at -70° C and a fresh ampoule was used for each experiment. Infectivity titres were assayed by the infectivity endpoint micromethod in L-F₁ and U cells.

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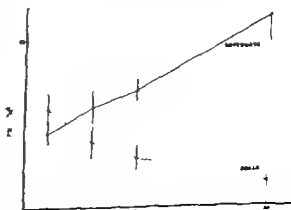


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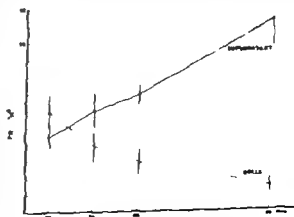


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and non-antiviral activities of interferon. Following treatment of interferon, samples were tested for effect on AIB release. Antiviral activity and effect on cell growth were determined in parallel experiments (Table 2). 1500 units interferon per ml reduced the AIB release by 24 per cent and the cell growth by 44 per cent. Heating had little if any effect on the activities, while trypsin treatment strongly reduced all three activities. Anti-interferon globulin had no effect by itself and had no influence on the effect of the low interferon concentrations (1-5 units) on the AIB release. When provoked by 200 units interferon, all three activities were neutralized by treatment with anti-interferon globulin. Mock interferon showed no significant activity when tested by the same three parameters.

DISCUSSION

AIB was chosen as a cytoplasmic marker mainly because it is not metabolized in the cell (7). Therefore its release from the cells must be primarily dependent on the state of the cytoplasmic membrane. The release of AIB is also dependent on the solvent in which the cells are incubated. Eagle's MEM was chosen for the present experiments because the spontaneous release into this medium is more pronounced than into other solutions (17). Therefore a possible reduction of the release by stabilization of cell membrane could be more easily demonstrated. The extent of spontaneous release of AIB from U amnion cells was comparable to that found by others (17) from human embryonal fibroblast cells.

The present results show that human leukocyte interferon inhibits the spontaneous release of a non-metabolizable cytoplasmic marker from the homologous U amnion cells. This effect was dose dependent and correlated to the antiviral and cell growth inhibitory activities of the interferon preparation. Furthermore, the effect seems to be specific and is eliminated by trypsin treatment and anti-interferon treatment of interferon preparation. This finding confirms the earlier results obtained with ³H-uridine as cytoplasmic marker (10). The findings indicate that the reduction of release is not specific for the one marker used in the earlier experiments.

There is considerable experimental evidence suggesting that interferon treatment causes modifications of the cell surface. Murine leukaemia cells produced a reduced number of complete extracellular virus particles, while several intracellular markers were not influenced (11). A marked accumulation of virus particles at the surface indicated that the blocking effect is effective at a late stage of virus production, probably connected with

the release process (5). Signs of altered surface characteristics were also observed in various cells without the presence of virus infection. Such alterations were registered by a number of different parameters, such as expression of histocompatibility antigens (14), altered binding of radioactive concanavalin A (12), cholera toxin and thyroestimulating hormone (TSH) (13) to the cell surface, effect on the transport of thymidine (3), effect on the spontaneous release of uridine (10), alteration of the density of membrane and presence of intramembrane granules (6). The present findings are compatible with these observations and confirm that interferons alter the cytoplasmic membrane.

The quantitative aspects of the present study differ somewhat from our earlier findings, since larger concentrations of interferon were necessary to reduce the release of AIB than that of ³H-uridine (10). Since the AIB release can be considered as a marker of cytoplasmic membrane permeability the difference might suggest that intracellular events involving uridine metabolism might be influenced by the interferon treatment.

Very low concentrations of interferon (1-5 units per ml) in several experiments stimulated slightly AIB release from the cells. However this effect was not neutralized by the specific antiserum, and therefore should probably be considered as non-specific.

AIB was originally introduced in order to study the effect of cytolytic substance on the membrane permeability (17). The present results indicate that this substance may also be applied to the study of opposite effects i.e. stabilization of cell membrane.

The excellent technical assistance of Zdenka Kraljić is gratefully acknowledged.

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DETERMINATION OF GENOME SIZE AND BASE RATIO ON DEOXYRIBONUCLEIC ACID FROM MYCOBACTERIA

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The genome size and the base ratio of deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) from 15 different species of mycobacteria have been determined. The molecular weight of the sheared DNA specimens has been estimated.

Key words: Deoxyribonucleic acid, mycobacterium, genome size, base ratio, molecular weight.

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The C_{ot} is the concentration of a DNA in moles of nucleotides per litre multiplied by the time in seconds required for 50 per cent reassociation, is dependent on the complexity of a DNA. For DNA samples of equal molecular weight and without repeated sequences, the C_{ot} is proportional to the genome size. It is possible, therefore, to measure the genome size of a bacterium by comparing the C_{ot} of its DNA with the C_{ot} of a DNA with a known genome size (7-17).

The base ratio of a DNA can be determined by means of thermal denaturation, since there is correlation between the temperature for denaturation and the guanine (G) plus cytosine (C) content (percentage GC) (14).

In the present investigation, the genome size and the base ratio of 15 mycobacterial species were determined in order to confirm their mutual genetic relationship. Both virulent and non-virulent mycobacteria were included in the study.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

The DNA was isolated and purified from contaminating polysaccharides as described earlier (1). Shearing of DNA at 20,000 g s.e. in a French pressure cell press and the technique used for determination of the C_{ot} have been described previously (2). The C_{ot} of the mycobacterial DNA samples was compared with the C_{ot} of DNA of *E. coli* B which has the genome size 2.8×10^6 daltons (3-8). Thus, the genome size of each mycobacterial DNA was calculated from the following equation: Genome size = $2.8 \times 10^6 \times C_{ot}$ of mycobacterial DNA / C_{ot} of *E. coli* DNA. No correction was made for the difference in the GC content of *E. coli* and mycobacteria because there are divergent opinions concerning the influence of the base ratio on the rate of reassociation (9-26).

Analytical ultracentrifugation. The sedimentation velocity of the sheared DNA preparations was determined in a Spinco model E analytical ultracentrifuge equipped with ultraviolet optics. A cell with 12 mm Kef-F centrifuge was used. All analyses were carried out at 25°C and 60,000 rev/min. Exposures were taken at 8-minute

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Intervals. The positions of the DNA boundary in the cell were determined by direct scanning of the negatives in an Analytrol (Spinco) from which a 4.5 times enlarged scanning diagram was obtained. The sedimentation coefficient (S_{25}) was calculated from the slope of the line of $\log r_n$ versus t_n (where r_n is the distance from the centre of rotation at time t_n). The sedimentation coefficients were corrected for density and viscosity of the solvent used, i.e. 0.15 M sodium chloride, 0.015 M trisodium citrate, pH 7.0 (SSC), and 0.556 was used as the value of the partial specific volume (\bar{v}) for the sodium salt of DNA (11).

Determination of the base ratio of the DNA was performed by thermal denaturation in 0.1 SSC using the technique described previously (1). The formula $GC = (T_m - 53.9) / 2.44$ as given by Mandel & Marmur (14) for the relationship between T_m and GC percentage for DNA in 0.1 SSC was used for the calculations of the GC percentages.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The sedimentation coefficient

$$(S_{25,w}^1)$$

for the mycobacterial DNA preparations was determined after shearing. One group 10 samples, was analysed at a concentration corresponding to an

$$E_{260}^{1.0\%} = 1.8-2.0 (\sim 90-100 \mu\text{g/ml})$$

and the remaining 38 samples at an

$$E_{260}^{1.0\%} = 0.9-1.0 (\sim 45-50 \mu\text{g/ml}).$$

The preparations represented DNA isolated from the 19 strains listed in Table 1. The sedimentation coefficient at zero concentration

$$(S_{25,w}^0)$$

was calculated by extrapolation of the reciprocal of the sedimentation values versus concentration. In this way a value of

$$S_{25,w}^0 = 8.68 \text{ S}$$

was obtained for all the centrifugations performed. The standard error of this value was calculated to be 0.15 S. By insertion into the formula

$$S_{25,w}^0 - 2.7 = 0.01517 (\text{mol. wt.})^{0.445}$$

(10), a mean molecular weight (mol. wt.) of 681 000 daltons ($S \text{ E.} = 34 \text{ 000}$) was determined for all the sheared, double-stranded DNA samples. The variation in molecular weight (± 5 per cent) is quite

TABLE 1. *Genome Size and Base Ratio of DNA from Mycobacteria*

| Bacterial strain | Number of determinations of $C_{45}\%$ | Genome size | | G + C percentage |
|---|--|--------------------------|--------|------------------|
| | | daltons $\times 10^{-9}$ | (S.D.) | |
| <i>M. tuberculosis</i> H 37 Rv | 16 | 3.13 | (0.15) | 66.3 |
| <i>M. tuberculosis</i> (wild strain) | 4 | 3.01 | (0.05) | 66.4 |
| <i>M. bovis</i> (wild strain) | 6 | 3.02 | (0.32) | 66.3 |
| <i>M. bovis</i> BGC | 10 | 3.08 | (0.11) | 66.1 |
| <i>M. kansasii</i> ATCC 12478 | 4 | 4.29 | (0.24) | 67.5 |
| <i>M. marianum</i> ATCC 927 | 4 | 4.51 | (0.16) | 66.5 |
| <i>M. goodii</i> ATCC 14470 | 4 | 4.57 | (0.30) | 66.1 |
| <i>M. avium</i> , serotype II ATCC 25291 | 20 | 3.92 | (0.20) | 70.3 |
| <i>M. avium</i> , serotype III (wild strain) | 8 | 4.00 | (0.16) | 70.5 |
| <i>M. intracellulare</i> ATCC 25169 | 11 | 4.29 | (0.25) | 70.0 |
| <i>M. scrofulaceum</i> ATCC 19073 | 11 | 4.57 | (0.26) | 70.2 |
| <i>M. xenopi</i> , SSC 989 | 12 | 3.29 | (0.18) | 68.2 |
| <i>M. gastri</i> ATCC 25158 | 4 | 4.20 | (0.14) | 66.6 |
| <i>M. smegmatis</i> ATCC 607 | 36 | 5.20 | (0.36) | 69.1 |
| <i>M. smegmatis</i> No. 108 | 4 | 5.55 | (0.35) | 69.4 |
| <i>M. phlei</i> ATCC 27086 | 4 | 4.30 | (0.24) | 71.4 |
| <i>M. fortuitum</i> ATCC 9820 | 4 | 4.16 | (0.14) | 67.5 |
| <i>M. farcinogenes</i> , var. <i>senegalense</i> NCTC 10956 | 4 | 4.27 | (0.17) | 68.0 |
| <i>M. farcinogenes</i> , var. <i>ichadense</i> IEMVT 93 B | 4 | 4.40 | (0.22) | |

small. A correlation between this variation and that of the mean value of the corresponding four determinations of $C_{62}X$ could not be demonstrated.

The results of the determination of the genome size of 15 species of mycobacteria and their DNA base ratios are shown in Table 1. From 4 to 36 determinations of $C_{62}X$ were carried out on DNA from the species, as indicated in the table. It can be seen that the genome sizes of the DNA of the two strains of *M. tuberculosis*, the strain of *M. bovis* and the strain of *M. bovis* BCG are all equal. These and a *M. neoaurum* strain, among which the mycobacteria pathogenic for man are found, have smaller genome sizes ($3.0-3.3 \times 10^9$) than the other strains examined, all of which showed values between 3.9 and 5.6×10^9 daltons. The genome size of nine of the species included in this investigation has also been determined by Bradley (5-6). If 2.8×10^9 daltons had been used for the genome size of *E. coli* in Bradley's calculations, six of the results would have been similar to ours. However for the three remaining species, *M. avium*, *M. intracellulare* and *M. fortuitum*, the values determined by Bradley would still be smaller. UV-absorbing contaminants can result in a false increase in $C_{62}X$ values and consequently in too high genome sizes. The purity of our DNA specimens has been described in previous publications (1-2). All DNA's used were of a similar quality as determined by the ratios E_{260}/E_{280} and E_{260}/E_{230} . In some of our specimens the DNA concentration was measured at 260 nm and also determined by the diphenylamine reaction. These measurements have shown good agreement. Thus, at present, we have no explanations for the discrepancies between Bradley's and our own results.

The results of the GC percentages are listed as mean values of two determinations for each DNA sample. The variation obtained in this duplicate determination of T_m (the temperature corresponding to the midpoint of the melting curve) was from 0°C to 0.35°C , which corresponds to a variation of 0 to 0.8 in the values calculated for the GC percentage. The hyperchromicity of the samples studied was generally about 35 per cent. Some DNA samples of *M. kansasii* and *M. gastri* were also used for determination of T_m prior to purification for contaminating polysaccharides. The hyperchromicity of these samples were found to vary between 11 and 23 per cent. However the GC percentages calculated from them were the same as those found for the purified DNA samples of these species.

Except for *M. gastri*, base ratios have been published previously for all the species reported on here (4, 12, 13, 18, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25). The values presented in these previous reports generally

varied up to 9 per cent for the same species, and all except two are lower than the values obtained in the present study. The use of different methods can only partially explain this discrepancy. As regards thermal denaturation, it is essential that the temperature should be measured with an accuracy of at least 0.1°C . It was found that the variation in temperature was considerably more than this when measured at different locations in the cell holder with the cells containing 10 ml of solution. Consequently in our experiments, the thermistor was placed directly in the stirred DNA solution without interfering with the light beam.

Mandel & Marwars (14) formula, $GC = (T_m - 53.9) / 2.44$ for DNA in 0.1 SSC, which was used for our calculations is valid on the assumption that the T_m temperatures for DNA with high and low GC content change in a linear fashion with the logarithm of the sodium ion concentration. This has been shown experimentally by Marwar & Dory (15) and Silvestri & Hill (19). Owen *et al.* (16) studied the T_m of four DNA samples in SSC and a phosphate buffer at several different ionic strengths. These authors found that the slopes of the equations for T_m versus the logarithms of the sodium ion concentration decreased with increasing GC content of the samples. A recalculation of their data using the SSC values exclusively indicated that the slopes did not show any systematic variation. Apparently further experimental work is needed for a final evaluation of the effect of changes in buffer composition on T_m .

The genome sizes of the mycobacteria studied were all of the same order of magnitude and the GC contents were found to be high, i.e. between 66 and 71 per cent. Furthermore, as mentioned previously some of the strains have genomes of equal size ($\sim 3 \times 10^9$ daltons). Hybridization experiments with DNA from these strains are now in progress in order to examine the homology of their base sequences.

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